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ABSTRACT

Despite the demonstrated need for better basic skills among adolescents and growing public concern over the condition of urban junior high schools, only a small proportion of ESEA Title I money is used to help students beyond the sixth grade. This study was designed to determine what Federal, State and local resources are being used to assist educationally disadvantaged older students and how programs for these students are different from programs designed primarily for the elementary grades. Seven states were selected for the study: Arizona, California, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, South Carolina, and Vermont. Findings from each state are discussed. It was found that despite substantial obstacles, most secondary schools and their faculties recognize the need for compensatory education for adolescents and are willing to provide such help when strong leadership is available. The complexity of Title I projects for older students is discussed. Five common project designs for the secondary grades are described. Processes for selection and training of staff members are also reviewed. Although a number of problems (such as testing, and program overlap and conflict) with Title I programs for older students are identified, the conclusions drawn about the future of these programs are optimistic. Appended to this document are tables on Title I participation by grade level, a discussion of the study methodology and of the concept of basic skills in reading, and different States' requirements for professional reading personnel. A list of references is also included. (Author/GC)

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SURVEY OF BASIC SKILLS PROGRAMS FOR ADOLESCENTS IN SEVEN STATES

July 1977

SRI Project 4537

Educational Policy Research Center
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BASIC SKILLS PROGRAMS FOR ADOLESCENTS IN SEVEN STATES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Students in grades 7-12 receive little attention from the giant federal compensatory education programs. Despite demonstrated needs for better basic skills among adolescents and growing public concern over the condition of urban junior high schools, only a small proportion of ESEA Title I money is used to help students beyond the sixth grade. This study was designed to determine what federal, state and local resources are being used to assist educationally disadvantaged older students and how programs for these students are different from programs designed primarily for the elementary grades. Seven states were selected for study: Arizona, California, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, South Carolina, and Vermont. Findings from each state are discussed.

In general, we found that despite substantial obstacles most secondary schools and their faculties recognize the need for compensatory education for adolescents and are willing to provide such help when strong leadership is available.

Projects designed to help older students improve their basic skills are quite varied in their design, organization and immediate objectives. Five common project designs for the secondary grades are described in the report. In many cases these compensatory projects are much more complex than the "pull-out" designs that are familiar in Title I and that dominate compensatory education projects at the elementary school level.

The complexity of secondary level projects seems to arise from the necessity of fitting into the curricula and organization of junior and senior high schools. Projects that were located in a reading department, or that created ties among the many departments of a secondary school, or that had relatively large staffs appeared to have more stable staff and finances than projects that were very small and/or isolated from the rest of the school. In general, projects funded by state or local sources tended to choose more complex and innovative designs, while projects funded by Title I were more likely to have smaller and more traditional designs.

There were also considerable differences among the projects in the way in which staff members were selected and trained. Projects using the more traditional pull-out designs were the most likely to seek staff members whose training and experience had been in the elementary grades. This seemed to reflect a belief that basic skills were "really elementary subjects." Projects with more complex designs were more likely to retrain members of the regular secondary school faculty and therefore to have intensive in-service and planning components.

Somewhat to our surprise, we found that most projects were able to assemble the ideas, methods, materials and staff needed to provide remedial or compensatory education to older students. This is remarkable given the tendency of state and local managers of federal compensatory programs to focus resources on younger age groups. It is also surprising in view of the small amount of formal research which has been devoted to adolescent basic skills. It appears that a solid base of ingenuity and experience exists locally for helping the large number of secondary students who have inadequate basic skills. This base could be expanded quite rapidly and, we believe, successfully if the basic skills of adolescents were to become a high educational and political priority.

However, four problems were frequently reported among projects in junior and senior high schools.

1. Inadequate and unstable funds tend to lower the morale, continuity, effectiveness and coverage of many projects. Quite simply, more money is needed.
2. Secondary level projects need different planning and in-service components than do elementary level projects. The regulations of federal and state programs are often insensitive to these needs.

3. Project staff often rely on inappropriate standardized tests for identifying, placing and diagnosing students. This can distort project objectives and confuse project evaluation.

4. Overlap and confusion between compensatory education and the remediation of learning disabilities presents a serious administrative problem in some states. In the future this problem could get much worse.

Fortunately, all of these problems can be solved if there exists the political will to assist older students. The relative health and tenacity of the projects in our study suggests that this political will may be developing gradually at the local level.

INTRODUCTION

SRI's Educational Policy Research Center (EPRC) has been studying compensatory education policy for the past five years, under the auspices first of the Bureau of the Budget, then the Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation, and currently the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Education. Our tasks, generally, have been to review, synthesize, and interpret published research as a basis for evaluating a variety of federal policy options; to conduct secondary analyses of existing data bases so as to bring them to bear on current policy issues; and to produce "first cut" information on special topics for which no wide data base yet exists, but which have been raised in the debate of compensatory education policy.

This document reports on a study of the third type. About three years ago, several articles that appeared in the psychological literature suggested that adolescence, particularly early adolescence, was a period not only of substantial physical and emotional change, but also of considerable cognitive growth. This was not a new premise, but one that had remained relatively unexplored during the many years when American psychological and educational research had been focused on the potentials of early childhood. Work by Rohwer, Kagen, Elkind, and others pointed to the notion that intellectual capacity and achievement were perhaps not irrevocably set by the end of the early school years. If this were true, then a variety of policy options for compensatory education would be open to consideration. Disadvantaged students in the intermediate and secondary grades have been neglected by our national policy of compensatory education almost since its inception. For several years, only a small and declining fraction of federal money for compensatory education had been spent on providing children beyond the age of ten with compensatory help in basic academic and cognitive skills. Instead, the national strategy has been one of concentrating compensatory services during the elementary grades (particularly K-3) on the theory that those years are the best and perhaps the only effective time for learning and change. Our overall task was to assess the validity of this strategy and of its alternatives.

To do so, we began a series of studies, the first of which was a study of the educational and psychological literature that relates to cognitive and intellectual development during both the elementary and secondary school years. There we reported that the available research indicates that the early childhood years are not magical nor the adolescent years as desperate (vacant, wasted) as prevailing academic belief held them to be. Rather, each period seems to be one of distinct potentials and distinct needs that must be met if full cognitive growth is to be attained and sustained.*

A second study in this series then attempted to check these conclusions against the experience of compensatory education projects. Under the regulations of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) Title I, each state receiving funds is required to make an annual report on the use of its funds and to evaluate the effectiveness of the projects it has sponsored with these funds. Over 230 state evaluation reports from 50 states and the District of Columbia spanning a 5-year period were reviewed. These reports showed that while most participants in compensatory education were in the elementary grades (with by far the greatest proportion in the primary grades), every state Title I program included some students in the seventh through twelfth grades, ranging from 4% to 25% of all participants.†

The state reports also confirmed that state Title I officials believed that intermediate and secondary projects were less effective in achieving tested gains than were elementary grade projects. Our analysis of the scores that these reports displayed, however, showed something quite different. Reported gains in grade equivalency in reading skills very often were higher for students in grades 7-12, with both mean and median gains of over one months per month, than they were for students in grades 1-3 or 1-6. Furthermore, by distinguishing between gains that might be attributed to program effects and the normal gains expected during a school year, our study raised the possibility that compensatory projects in grades 7-12 are at least as effective as, and perhaps more effective than, those in grades 1-6 at moving disadvantaged students toward national reading test norms.*

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*The first study was originally published as Adolescence: Alternative Strategies for Compensatory Education, Volume I, Meredith A. Larson/ Freya E. Dittman, July 1974.

†Appendix A presents data relevant to the proportion of Title I participation by grade level.

Such encouraging findings were in keeping with the high potential for learning that our earlier reviews had suggested for adolescents. Nevertheless, they were surprising findings in the face of belief by state and federal officials to the contrary. The findings of these first two studies clearly suggested that greater attention be given to efforts in the nonelementary grades. It was extremely difficult, however to say just what assistance was needed, since no one seemed to know what was already there, how it was being used, or what problems remained unsolved.

That brought us to our present study. What was needed was basic information about the size, organization and content of compensatory education for intermediate and secondary grade students. We sought to find answers to the following questions:

- What resources of money, staff, materials, and time are available for attending to the needs of nonelementary students for basic skills, particularly reading?
- How are the resources organized to turn them into active projects at the district and the school level?

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*The second study was originally published as Early Adolescence: A Synthesis of the Research Literature, Volume II (Draft), Freya E. Dittman, October 1974. These two studies were combined and republished as Compensatory Education and Early Adolescence: Reviewing our National Strategy, May 1975.

- How are the students selected for participation, and in what kinds of remedial activities do they participate?
- What major or minor problems do these projects encounter?
- How does the availability and use of project resources vary among states?

All of these questions are, in effect, different aspects of another: what programs, policies and problems are unique to adolescents in the context of compensatory education? One might well expect, for example, that programs for adolescents are not well-staffed, have difficulty finding commercial materials for the curriculum, or are necessarily more expensive to initiate and maintain than are the elementary school counterparts. Given the important differences between the organization of schooling in secondary schools and in the elementary grades, one might well expect that administrative procedures and the social organization of programs would be widely different. Older students are frequently argued to be more intractable socially (rather than cognitively) than are younger children, and that they cannot be taught "kiddy skills." Or, they might demand more from programs and claim the right to personal choices incompatible with the installation of low budget projects.

All of these aspects of compensatory education are of intrinsic interest to the researcher, the educator and the sociologist for the contribution they may make to our general understanding of schools and schooling. Of equal importance, however, an understanding of these issues could help provide the basis for the construction of far better federal and state policy for providing compensatory education to older students. The operational policies of categorical programs must often be constructed in a vacuum. Because they often seek to remedy difficult and long neglected problems, categorical programs usually have very little experience from which to draw when crucial regulations, funding levels and procedures are constructed. This means that policy makers often lack the kind of information that could make policy sensitive to the special needs and circumstances of certain schools and students who will participate. The questions above are raised in the hope that their answers can help provide the basis for more sound and responsive policy for adolescent compensatory education.

To answer these questions we chose a combination of survey and case study methods.* Eight states were chosen to represent various combinations of three characteristics: region of the country, participation by older students in state compensatory education activities, and reported achievement records of intermediate and secondary compensatory projects in a state. One state was subsequently dropped from the study because we could not obtain sufficient information to form a clear picture of compensatory education activities there. In each of the other seven states, written materials were combined with information obtained by interview from state, district, and school personnel to form an initial description of the use of resources. Although Title I participation rates were used as an initial selection criterion, in the course of the interviews we sought to locate and collect information about any local, state or federal program that provided resources for assisting adolescents with improving basic skills, particularly reading. A draft case study was then prepared on each state. These cases were then reviewed by small conferences of reading theoreticians and project staff to assist us in interpreting the information.

This document has two major sections. In the first, each of the seven case studies is presented. The case study methodology adopted for this study necessarily limits the generalizability of its findings. In addition, while the descriptions of project designs, staff training and other aspects of program operation were accurate for the time period of the survey (school year 1974-75) many of the individual projects we contacted may have changed substantially since that time. Nevertheless, out intention was to suggest general characteristics and patterns which we believe are unlikely to have changed dramatically. We hope that, with these qualifications, the report can provide some groundwork for subsequent experimental and comparative research studies and can lend some immediate information to the continuing policy debate on compensatory education strategy. Each case study begins with a brief overview of the state's projects in compensatory or remedial education for intermediate and secondary students. The overviews are followed by discussions of the funding sources by which projects were supported; the organization of state programs and local projects; the backgrounds and training of teachers employed by these projects; the way in which students are selected for participation, and later, are determined to have "completed" their work; and the materials and methods used for teaching. These state by state descriptions are provided in some detail and with a minimum of analysis; some readers therefore may prefer to turn directly to the second section.

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*A description of the methodology appears as Appendix B.

†"Basic skills" is a phrase with several slightly different definitions. Appendix C briefly discusses four of these definitions and their different applications. In general, such shades of meaning are important to those teachers and curriculum developers who are charged with project content, but are of less importance to the general reader or to the researcher interested in broad trends.

The second section of the report presents discussion and analysis of the material presented in the separate state descriptions. First, we describe five basic models of project design and organization that were encountered, with minor variations, throughout the seven states. Second, we discuss three present or potential problems raised by the projects we studied. Third, we combine all of this material into concrete statements of "findings" for the study. Perhaps the most important finding is that many of the nonmonetary resources needed to run effective compensatory education projects seem to be already available and in use. These nonmonetary resources include teacher expertise, models of project design and organization, teaching materials, an understanding of the importance of the work, and a willingness to undertake it. Other findings discuss these resources individually, and make suggestions about aspects of future policy.

Finally we must say a word about information which is not included in this volume. It is inevitable that an exploratory study will not collect some kinds of information that would have been helpful in the analysis. For reasons discussed in Appendix A we chose not to attempt to collect evaluation data. It would also have added much to our understanding of adolescent programs to have interviewed student participants, but this is a task we must leave to another study.

Another sort of missing information is that which we have deliberately deleted. In several instances, for example, we have not included specific information about project staffing, student selection or funding sources that might reflect on present controversies over the interpretation of Title I regulations. We can report our conclusion, however, that there are many areas of Title I law and practice which cause severe theoretical and practical difficulties for projects in the middle and upper grades. If ESEA Title I is ever to become a sound vehicle for assisting adolescents, these problems in project design, student selection, staffing and evaluation will need to be resolved.

I CASE STUDIES

ARIZONA

Interest in basic skills for older students in Arizona is reflected in the variety of programs operating in the state. In addition to ESEA Title I projects, Right-to-Read is active in some of the large districts such as Phoenix Unified and in a few smaller locales such as the community-based project at Navajo Community College in Chinle. The Migrant Child Education Program has been implemented in many districts under the Migrant Amendment to ESEA Title I, and bilingual programs are being developed under monies provided by ESEA Title VII and supplementary state funding.

In July 1971 the Arizona State School Board adopted the policy that each student must "demonstrate ability to read at least at a ninth grade level of proficiency as shall be established by the local district"[1] in order to graduate from high school. Although state-level administration has provided little assistance with costs or procedures, leaving implementation to the districts, this policy has significantly raised the priority of reading in the junior and senior high schools of the state.

One immediate effect seems to have been that, where no Title I funding is available for reading instruction, the districts have assumed the responsibility for assisting the students with basic skills problems, in order to comply with the state graduation requirement.

Because the 1973 graduating class was the first to be subject to this policy, many of its ramifications cannot yet be adequately evaluated. Administrators express concern over the student who completes four years of high school with passing marks, but is prevented from graduating because of this requirement. This concern may be reflected by increasing participation of junior high students in Arizona's Title I projects. In grades 7-9, participation was 25% of total participation in 1970-71 and 21% in 1972-73, but rose to 27.5% in 1974-75 (See Table 1) Participation in grades K-3 dropped from 48% in 1972-73 to 41% in 1974-75.

Table 1

ARIZONA TITLE I PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL: ACADEMIC YEARS 1971-75

(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level	1970-1971	1971-72		1972-73		1973-74		1974-75	
	Enrollment	Enrollment	Percent Change	Enrollment	Percent Change	Enrollment	Percent Change	Enrollment	Percent Change
Pre-K-3	38%	40%	+2%	48%	+8%	43%	-5%	41%	-2%
4-6	25	25	0	24	-1	26	+2	25	-1
7-9	25	23	-2	21	-2	24	+3	27.5	+3.5
10-12	12	12	0	7	-5	7	0	6.5	-0.5

Source: Arizona annual Title I reports

The results of Arizona's experiment with this competency-based aspect of high school graduation will depend largely on the quality of district-funded reading programs and the continued availability of monies to support this instruction.

The administrator of a district-funded reading department said that her department is riding the wave of a new statewide interest in reading. If this interest fades, she said, the going will be rough. Most of the reading courses offered are electives, and there is potential conflict with other elective subjects if enrollment drops and budget cuts become necessary. Her intention is to do the groundwork for institutionalizing the reading department while support is high, to avoid its being dropped in more adverse times.

Our interviews indicate that most districts are capable of substantial effort and that enthusiasm is high. State, district, and local administrators must now find ways of channeling and stabilizing these assets into effective projects.

Organization

The State Department of Education is responsible for overall program guidelines and fiscal accountability. More specific project direction is assumed by district consultants--generally instructional or curriculum specialists. Large districts tend to have a federal program coordinator or Title I director who acts as a fiscal administrator and sometimes an evaluator and provides some assistance with curriculum. In smaller districts, these responsibilities are usually handled by a superintendent or assistant superintendent.

At minimum, district-funded projects include facilities for ensuring compliance with the state guidelines regarding reading competency. The state guidelines leave to the districts the tasks of defining and accomplishing the required proficiency. Thus, qualified personnel are required at the district level to develop the testing device and at the school level to administer the test, interpret the scores, and implement instructional designs for developing the required competencies.

When this amount of district-level activity is added to that required for the administration and operation of federal programs, the high level of expertise generated makes the district the prime mover in program and policy implementation. This situation may explain the lack of specific procedures or funding to accompany state thrusts such as the competency requirement.

At the school level, the principal is usually responsible for the overall administration of compensatory projects. In practice, however, this responsibility seems to be no more than that held over all aspects of the school's curriculum. Half of the projects contacted in Arizona are part of a school reading department. In these cases, direct project management is the responsibility of the department head. In a few other instances, the project staff has reached a level of organization that could be called quasi-departmental. The remaining projects are part of the English and math departments and are administered by them. In all projects three or more teachers, some person is considered the leader even if no official title such as director or coordinator is attached.

The tendency to move toward an official organizational structure, and the variation of projects in operation in Arizona result in a number of ways of arranging staffs and resources. Two examples of such arrangements are shown in Figures 1 and 2. In Figure 1, the structure is built on the funding sources which provided services; in Figure 2, the structure depends more on the grade that is being served.

Funding

The two main sources of funds for secondary projects are ESEA Title I and the district's general funds. Title I funds are used to provide special services for students placing at the bottom of those students who are two or more years below grade level. District funds are used, at a minimum, to provide services necessary to assist non Title I students in satisfying the state's competency requirement.

As of mid-1974, the state had only two Right-to-Read projects: one based in a high school and the other in a community college. We contacted only the high school project, which reported that the bulk of its Right-to-Read funds are used for staff development.

No project contacted reported the use of Special Education monies to provide basic skills reading assistance. A review of the state's Title I reports indicates that 179 special education students participated in Title I programs (K-12) in 1970-71. By 1972-73, there were no such participants and later reports do not include Special Education in the categories of Title I participation. Apparently, unlike some other states we contacted, special education money and projects are kept separate from compensatory or remedial efforts in Arizona.

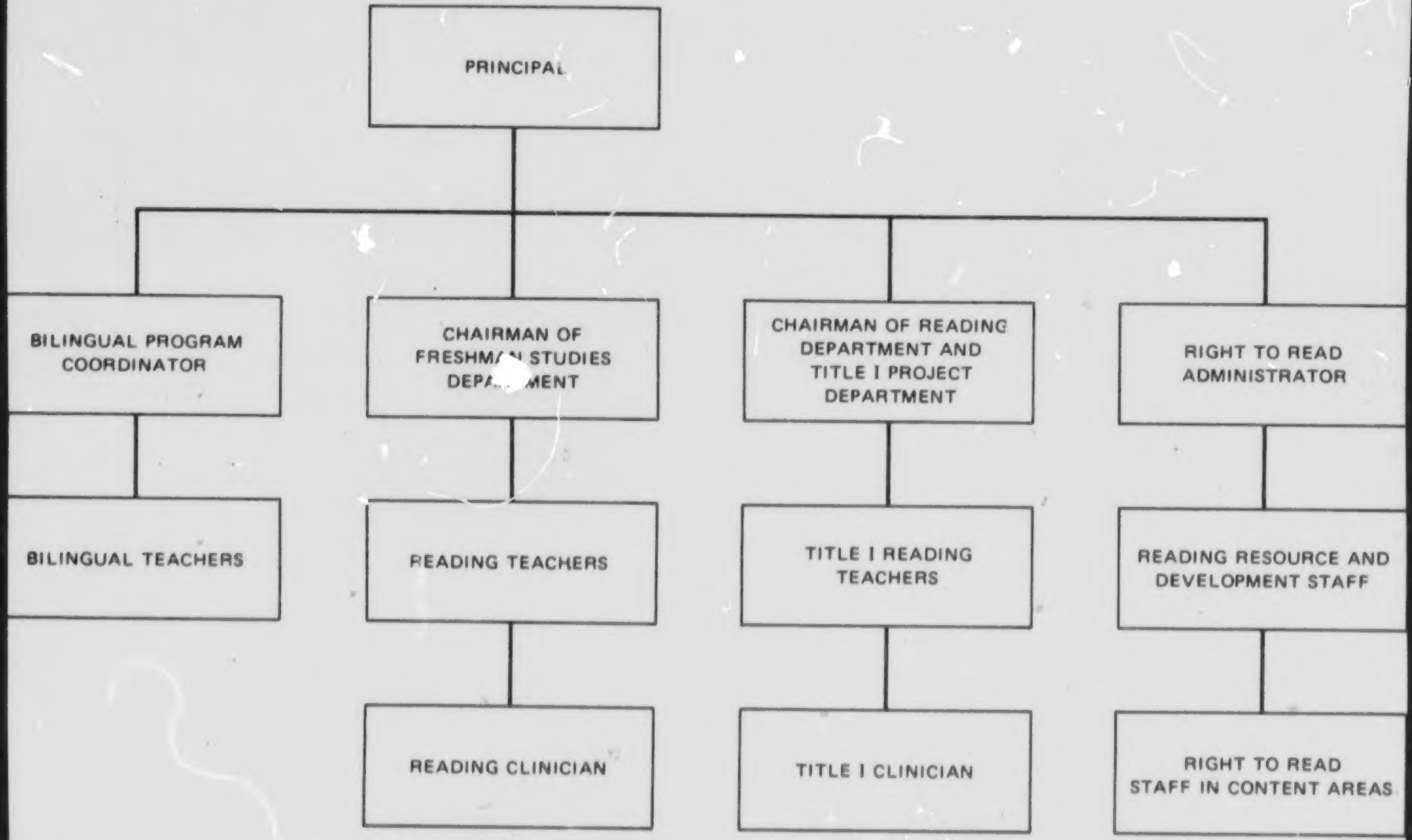
PRINCIPAL
BILINGUAL PROGRAM COORDINATOR
CHAIRMAN OF FRESHMAN STUDIES DEPARTMENT
CHAIRMAN OF READING DEPARTMENT AND TITLE I PROJECT DEPARTMENT
RIGHT TO READ ADMINISTRATOR
BILINGUAL TEACHERS
READING TEACHERS
TITLE I READING TEACHERS
READING RESOURCE AND DEVELOPMENT STAFF
READING CLINICIAN
TITLE I CLINICIAN
RIGHT TO READ STAFF IN CONTENT AREAS

FIGURE 1 STAFF OF AN ARIZONA HIGH SCHOOL READING PROGRAM ORGANIZED BY FUNDING SOURCE

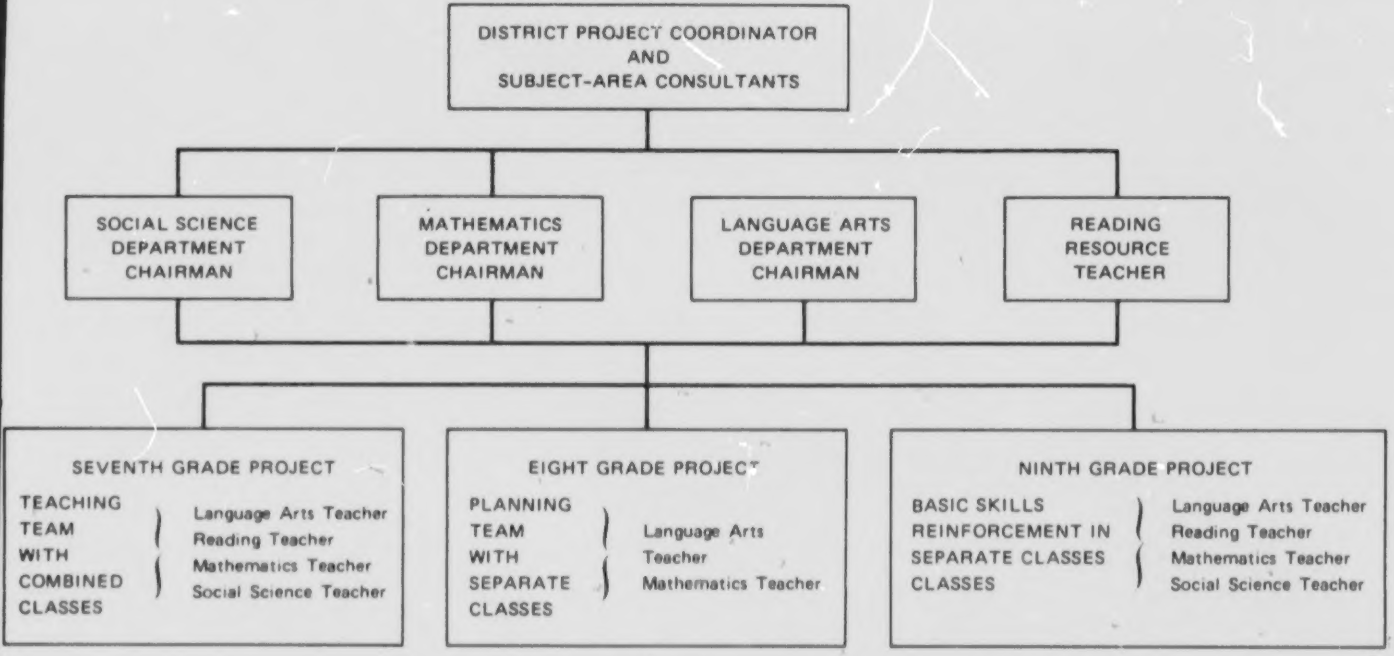
DISTRICT PROJECT COORDINATOR AND SUBJECT-AREA CONSULTANTS
SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN
MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN
LANGUAGE ARTS DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN
READING RESOURCE TEACHER
SEVENTH GRADE PROJECT
TEACHING TEAM WITH COMBINED CLASSES
Language Arts Teacher
Reading Teacher
Mathematics Teacher
Social Science Teacher
EIGHT GRADE PROJECT
PLANNING TEAM WITH SEPARATE CLASSES
Language Arts Teacher
Mathematics Teacher
NINTH GRADE PROJECT
BASIC SKILLS REINFORCEMENT IN SEPARATE CLASSES CLASSES
Language Arts Teacher
Reading Teacher
Mathematics Teacher
Social Science Teacher

FIGURE 2 STAFF OF AN ARIZONA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BASIC SKILLS PROJECT ORGANIZED BY GRADE LEVEL

Students

Identification and Assignment

All projects contacted in Arizona use standardized tests as initial screening devices. While most of these tests are norm-referenced, including the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), the Metropolitan Achievement Test, the Gates-MacGinite, and the Stanford Achievement Test, the use of criterion-referenced tests as an initial screening device appears to be increasing. Some districts use as a screening device whatever tests of minimum reading proficiency it had developed for testing the competency required for graduation.

Most projects contacted administer standardized tests on an October-May schedule, although two projects maintained a May-May schedule. One year-round school administered the tests on an October-October schedule.

The reading proficiency graduation requirement seems to have led to a system of identifying participants that is more elaborate than that found in most other states. One system, whch is a good example, has a variety of programs for various levels and types of reading problems. Therefore, students are sorted according to the degree of assistance required (see Figure 3). All entering ninth grade students take the ITBS, which reports scores by stanine groups. Students scoring in Stanines 1 and 2 are assigned to the Title I program, and the lowest 12 of these students receive special help from a reading clinician. Students in Stanine 3 are assigned to remedial reading classes. Those in Stanine 4 are assigned to corrective reading classes. Students in Stanine 5 are "grade level" readers and are assigned to reading classes that stress development of vocabulary, reading and study speed, and so on.

At the end of the ninth grade, students who pass the Minimal Reading Proficiency Assessment (MRPA) are given no further reading instruction. Those who fail are given special district-funded reading assistance in the areas covered in the test.* Those failing the MRPA who are also Title I-eligible are assigned to the Title I-funded reading lab as space becomes available after all ninth grade students have been served.

Not all projects have identification processes as complicated as those shown in Figure 3. However, most Arizona projects use both Title I and general funds to aid basic skills, and therefore must make some attempt to clearly define the recipients of Title I funds. A cutoff of two years below grade equivalent (GE) is frequently used to define those eligible for Title I compensatory instruction. Since the number of students eligible under Title I guidelines almost always exceeds the maximum class loads maintained in the program, only the bottom of the identified group is selected to become part of the Title I project classes.

Once the reading level of a student has been determined, most districts administer further diagnostic tests to locate specific reading

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*The following 12 objectives (here abbreviated) form the basis of the MRPA: (1) A functional reader will correctly identify stated main ideas; (2) a functional reader will correctly identify inferred main ideas; (3) a functional reader will correctly identify conclusions drawn from a stated or inferred main idea; (4) a functional reader will correctly identify stated supportive details; (5) a functional reader will correctly identify conclusions drawn from stated or inferred supportive details; (6) a functional reader will correctly identify states or inferred sequences within selected contents; (7) a functional reader will correctly answer relationship questions, such as cause and effect, fact and opinion, or time and space; (8) given written directions, a functional reader will demonstrate the ability to follow these directions; (9) given tasks using an index or table of contents, a functional reader will demonstrate the ability to complete the given tasks; (10) given tasks using a dictionary, a functional reader will demonstrate the ability to complete the given tasks; (11) given tasks for extracting information from graphs, tables, maps, charts, diagrams, pictures, or cartoons, a functional reader will demonstrate the ability to complete the given tasks; and (12) given tasks for using context clues, a functional reader will select an appropriate meaning for a given unfamiliar word.[2]

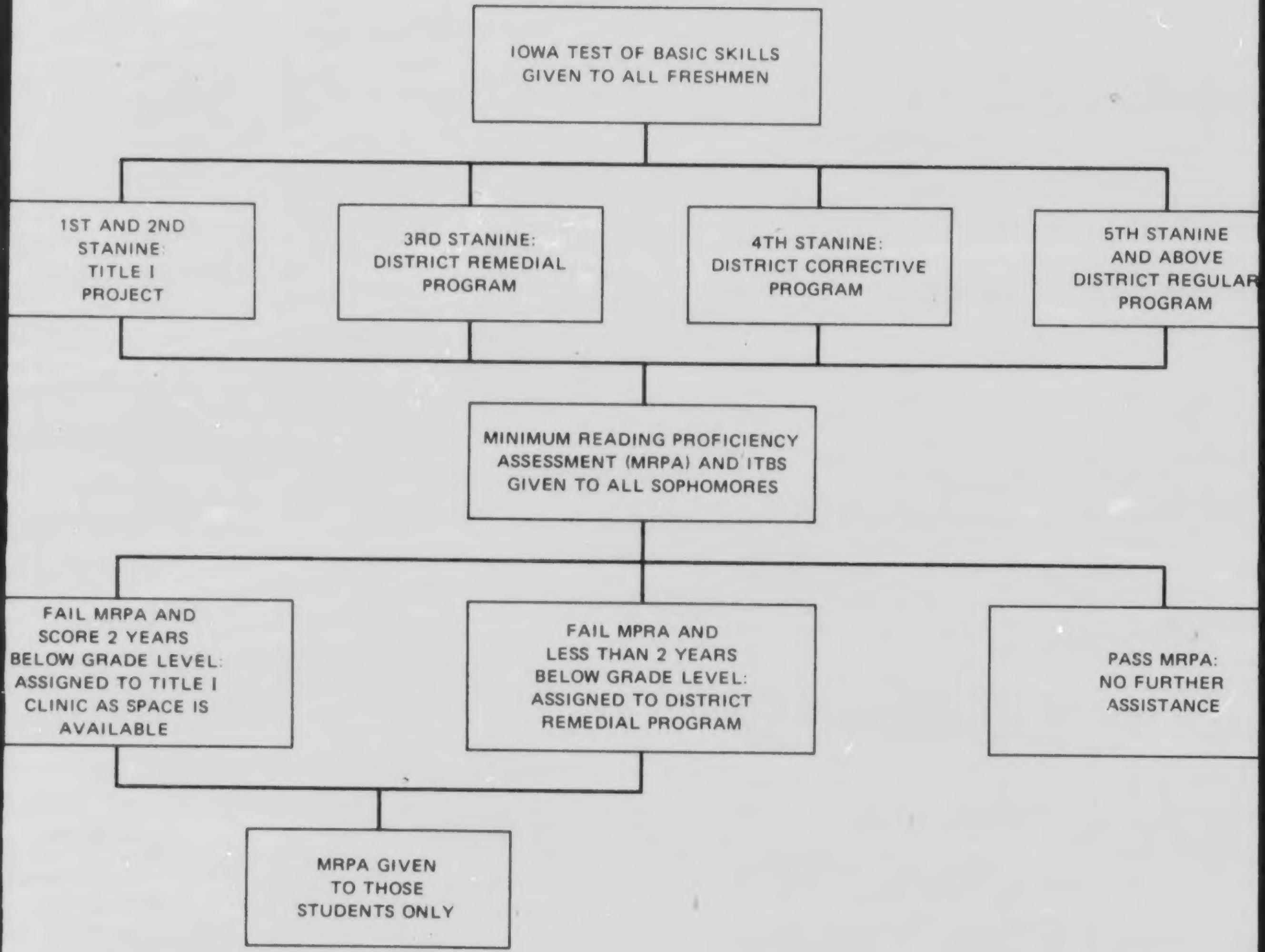
IOWA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS GIVEN TO ALL FRESHMEN
1ST AND 2ND STANINE: TITLE I PROJECT
3RD STANINE: DISTRICT REMEDIAL PROGRAM
4TH STANINE: DISTRICT CORRECTIVE PROGRAM
5TH STANINE AND ABOVE DISTRICT REGULAR PROGRAM
MINIMUM READING PROFICIENCY ASSESSMENT (MRPA) AND ITBS GIVEN TO ALL SOPHOMORES
FAIL MRPA AND SCORE 2 YEARS BELOW GRADE LEVEL: ASSIGNED TO TITLE I CLINIC AS SPACE IS AVAILABLE
FAIL MPRA AND LESS THAN 2 YEARS BELOW GRADE LEVEL: ASSIGNED TO DISTRICT REMEDIAL PROGRAM
PASS MRPA: NO FURTHER ASSISTANCE
MRPA GIVEN TO THOSE STUDENTS ONLY

FIGURE 3 IDENTIFICATION AND ASSIGNMENT OF STUDENTS IN ARIZONA HIGH SCHOOL

difficulties. Prior records of the students and recommendations of teachers are often used to determine the skills that should be stressed in the classroom.

The criterion-referenced test which districts use for testing the graduation requirement serves a double purpose since it also provides a built-in diagnosis of the specific deficiencies that require work. Parents of students who fail the test are advised that the student will not graduate until this test is passed.

Exit

Local Title I administrators in Arizona explained the Title I exit criteria in various ways related to competency and stability: "being able to function at a nonclinical level," "when he reaches grade level and seems relatively stable," "when he reaches grade level and shows confidence," and so on. In practice, however, the universal exit criterion appeared to be financial; when there is no money to provide further assistance, the student no longer received Title I services. Those rojects that can provide only limited training tend to concentrate on the first grade of a school, other grades being served only if space is available.

This does not mean, however, that reading instruction stops when a student is able to, or must, exit the Title I program. The state requirement that all high school graduates must read at ninth grade competency, as determined by district testing devices, necessitates providing further assistance to those students who have left the compensatory Title I program but have not passed the necessary test.

Although some schools use a norm-referenced instrument to show ninth grade reading competency, the trend is to use a criterion-referenced test developed by district staff.

Teachers

All Arizona teachers who have titles such as reading specialist, reading consultant, remedial reading teacher, or special reading teacher are required to obtain Reading Specialist Certification (RSC). Elementary teachers in self-contained classrooms, teaching other subjects, are specifically exempted.

The specialist certification is a stamp that is attached to a teacher's basic credential. Teachers who desire an elementary endorsement must have an elementary credential and must obtain 15 hours of graduate instruction in three basic areas: decoding, diagnosis and remediation of reading difficulties, and practicum and/or internship. Endorsement for secondary education requires an active secondary credential plus a master's degree in secondary reading. Course requirements for reading specialists are shown in Appendix D. Exhibit D-1 shows the Arizona requirements as interpreted by Arizona State University.

In response to the state board reading policy, the Arizona Superintendent of Public Instruction issued ten recommendations to local administrators, citing specific priorities for the improvement of reading instruction. Among these is to "give highest priority to reading over all other subjects in the curriculum in alloting time." A more stringent recommendation is to "employ and/or retain only teachers who demonstrate the ability to help each child learn to read."[3]

The effect has been an extensive effort to increase the competency of all teachers to teach reading.

According to the Office of State Teacher Certification the number of persons who have obtained the RSC has increased substantially in the last two years although exact figures were not available. One official attributed this rise to the state board policy regarding reading and to the success of the state Right-to-Read program.

In response to the Arizona Superintendent's recommendations to "employ and/or retain only teachers who demonstrate the ability to help each child learn to read," new requirements for a secondary teaching certificate have been instituted and are supposed to be fully operational in Fall 1976. The major change requires all teachers applying for secondary certification to have taken courses in reading instruction. The two areas specified are decoding, and diagnosis and remediation. The practicum, required for RSCs, does not apply.

Providing this additional reading instruction has placed substantial burdens on the universities. Arizona State University, for example, is hiring new faculty and providing new facilities from university funds because the state has provided no extra funding.

At the local level, the special certification seems to be an important part of hiring. Projects contacted said that the RSC is the main prerequisite for hiring project teachers. First choice for staffing secondary-level reading are teachers who have secondary-level reading certification, a disciplinary background in English, and previous teaching experience at the secondary level. A few local educational agencies (LEAs), prefer teachers with previous teaching experience in the elementary grades. One principal said that a teacher with secondary experience "is good for working with the kids, but for remediation, elementary background may be better." A district administrator elaborated somewhat when echoing this preference; he felt that secondary teachers are not adequately instructed in fundamentals and that the English department does not have the proper attitudes or basic skills knowledge to carry out a program of remediation. A small proportion of the LEAs appeared to be indifferent about the grade level of previous experience, arguing that the considerable training needed for secondary specialist certification obviates the need for particular kinds of teaching background.

The overall preference for secondary training and experience seems more pronounced in Arizona than in other states and might be a reflection of the extent to which the teaching of reading is viewed as a legitimate activity of the secondary schools. Most local projects that prefer staff with secondary experience seem to have little difficulty locating such staff, and we may speculate about whether a preference for teachers with elementary experience is actually a statement of doubt about the legitimacy of teaching reading at the secondary level.

In-Service Training

District participation in in-service training is clearly affected by the changes in certification requirements. One district administrator said that while some district and some university in-service training is provided for reading teachers, the credential requirements for specialists obviate the need for any major effort, particularly at the beginning of the year. The teachers contacted in Arizona also emphasized their feelings that the credential requirement provides any necessary expertise and made only passing mention, if any, of the need for or existence of in-service training.

Nevertheless, LEAs do seem to face problems related to the lack of adequate in-service for regular teachers. One such problem is that the grandfather clause in the certification law requires that teachers hired before the new law went into effect must receive appropriate exposure to the teaching of reading, and this can be effectively done only through in-service programs.

A second problem is that in-service is necessary not only for imparting teaching skills, but also for orienting new teachers to the specific local project, its materials, teaching methods, organization, and so on. Even without turnover in project personnel, some in-service woud be needed, and personnel turnover seems to be at least as much the rule as the exception. In such cases, the in-service training of paraprofessional aides becomes particularly important. One district administrator described an in-service program in which the professional staff met first with elementary teachers and then with the paraprofessional aides as part of their orientation. The rationale was that aides showed little turnover and thus provided essential continuity and also considerable specific expertise in the project.

Another district has implemented an Aide Training Proficiency Test, which tests various specific skills identified as important to the job. All aides undergo a 40-hour training program before taking the test and are eligible to retake the test each time it is administered. As more areas of competency are passed, salary increases are given.

A third task for in-service training is coordination among projects funded by different sources but operating within the same district or school. The chairman of one high school reading department supervises the most comprehensive, and also the most complex, reading program our survey encountered. The problems of coordination in this program are obviously significant, but the chairman reported that the in-service component of most programs is minimal. This suggests that what coordination is done must be almost entirely administrative rather than substantive. Substantive training will largely depend, in such cases, on the particular requirements of individual funding sources. In this school, only the Right-to-Read project provides substantial in-service, employing two full-time professionals for reading resource staff development. These professionals are in charge of in-service training for Right-to-Read teachers in all content areas. Their time translates into six days per department per semester.

Materials

Software

Respondents reported no lack of reading materials, but they did mention several other problems. For example, there seems to be no well-understood pedagogical criteria for differentiating among the myriads of commercially developed systems, programs, and assorted curriculum units. No local project contacted has adopted wholesale any commercial program, but many seem to have devised eclectic combinations of the better-known products. In some part, this may stem from a rather vague theory of secondary reading that gives little guidance for materials choice. Another contributing factor may be the feeling among teachers that no commercial program should be adequate and that modifying materials is a sign of teacher expertise.

Most Arizona project personnel agreed that publishers are well-able to develop materials with simple vocabularies. The difficulty arises in using that vocabulary to write a high-interest story. The publishers were reported to be better able to do this with materials targeted for the junior high school than with those for older students. One superintendent said that many junior high materials are available, but only a few of these can be used in high school.

Many teachers reported that the best alternatives to commercial curriculum materials are generally paperback novels, newspapers, and publications such as Reader's Digest, which cove[illegible]tively interesting topics at an average reading level. Teacher-developed reading materials were rarely mentioned, perhaps because teachers lack time to develop them.

One district reading specialist said that the difficulty is compounded when a student's level varies according to both subject matter and reading skill. Of all the district people contacted, this specialist seems to be working most actively on the materials problem. She has set up a materials lab in which teachers can modify or develop available materials for their use. She is now tr[illegible]vise a standard coding system to identify materials by the readin[illegible] the skill at which they are aimed.

Difficulties of material selection are also compounded when the school or district is attempting to implement a content-area reading project. The chairman of the Phoenix Union High School reading department said that the Right-to-Read project there (which uses the content-area approach) began with almost exclusive use of commercial materials. As the program has progressed and as the teachers have gone through extensive in-service programs, they are being encouraged to develop their own materials. He attributed this emphasis to the lack of nonpatronizing materials for the project's students, especially those with varying ethnic backgrounds.

Hardware

The term "hardware" is used to denote everything from computer-assisted instruction to record players, and most projects reported using some equipment. One project staff reported using many types of hardware but thinks its value is mainly as a novelty. The district administrator said that the greatest interest lies with programmed instruction that provides sequenced, interdependent exercises targeted to the development of certain skills.

No project in Arizona reported using computer-assisted instruction. Less student interest was reported for more mundane equipment, such as record players and film strips. This information seems to strengthen the novelty theory of the value of hardware.

Where hardware is used in any form, it is available in a lab or open classroom. Calling the room a reading lab or instructional lab seems to indicate that the class is clinical; that is, it attempts to diagnose and remedy reading difficulties through standardized "scientific" methods recognized for this purpose.

Methods

Projects with a lab or hardware almost always said that they had some sort of individualized instruction. The use of the term "individualized" provides some insight into the difficulties inherent in interproject communication. For example, individualization suggests the development of a specific instructional program for a specific student; that is, the program emphasizes the specific skills the student has been shown to need. This, in turn, indicates that a class with 25 students has 25 curricula. In practice, however, the term normally means that 25 students are guided through one curriculum at perhaps 25 varying rates, with several different supplementary materials to develop skills in which they are deficient. In a few cases, individualized instruction refers merely to the existence of a separate diagnostic phase and not at all to the instructional methods to be employed.

Although the use of a contract or token-economy* system was not explored at length in the interviews, one district reported using a reward system to provide extra structure when "a student's motivation is low." The federal program director of this district also said that project classes are composed of students of varying levels within the target groups, as well as some enrichment students to provide further incentive. The faster students are encouraged to help the slower ones. Apparently the contract and the other procedures result from a need to increase classroom motivation.

Classroom arrangement and assignment are also variables of teaching methods in remedial classes. One administrator said that the most difficult aspect of setting up the program is removing the stigma attached to such classes. His project uses devices such as assigning nontarget enrichment students to increase motivation and using the counseling department to develop a feeling of need for the classes among the students. The open classroom seems to be another method for maintaining interest among the project students.

Arizona projects with three or more teachers often reported using team teaching. Team teaching is another catchall term, however, with little shared meaning among projects. Usually, the term must be qualified into subcategories such as team instruction and team planning. Team instruction entails several teachers in a classroom combining talents and dividing time among tasks, lecturing or leading discussions for the whole group, working with individual students or small groups, and holding conferences. Ideally, team planning accompanies team instruction, but the former may also be a problem-solving device for the one-teacher/conventional classroom. Under this arrangement, teachers often use a common free hour to go over curriculum materials and teaching methods and to plan optimal ways of conducting their classes. Those projects reporting the use of team planning generally have a project leader or someone in at least a quasi-administrative capacity.

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*Token-economy is a system of behavior-modification used to systematically reinforce certain desirable behavior. In the token-economy method, behavior is rewarded with tokens, which in turn purchase objects or freedoms the student considers desirable; other behavior modification techniques are based on more subtle rewards (a pat on the shoulder, an encouraging word, or a smile instead of a soft drink).

Generally, Arizona evidences numerous and relatively varied approaches to the teaching of basic skills to older students. Given the impetus of the state competency requirement, this level of activity may be expected to remain high.

CALIFORNIA

Under Title I, states have considerable room to add their own policies and regulations to those of the Federal level. In California, a deliberate policy of steering Title I money away from secondary grades has been in force for several years.*

California's orientation toward the early elementary level was evident throughout the study of that state's basic skills projects. Officials in junior high and high school Title I projects uniformly felt that funding could not be depended on. However, there are at least three indications of a countertrend which could improve the fortunes of intermediate and secondary basic skills efforts. First, the provisions of the "Ryan Act," dealing with teacher certification, now include a reading requirement for all teachers except those in certain vocational education categories, physical education, art, and music. Second, many exceptionally good projects exist under the auspices of Assembly Bill 938 (AB 938) and are influential throughout the state. Third, California has undertaken a commission study of the secondary schools and their problems. The findings of this study are now being translated into legislation. Whether this legislation will be passed or implemented remains to be seen, but it is an indication that Californians are beginning to take the nonelementary grades more seriously.†

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*The 1974 "Regulations for Consolidated Categorical Aid Programs in California Schools" state that "when [Title I] funds are insufficient to serve all eligible children, the youngest eligible children shall be the first served."[4]

†The findings of the Commission on the Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education (the RISE Commission) were published in 1975[5] and proposals were subsequently made to the legislature for implementing these findings. Although the bill, S.B. 1737 was passed by the 1976 legislature it was vetoed by the Governor.

To discuss the diverse compensatory projects in the state, we have divided the projects into three groups. The first group consists of projects funded by ESEA Title I. Generally, these are characterized by homogeneous classes, intensified instruction in reading (and sometimes math), the one-teacher/conventional classroom. These projects are often plagued by funding problems so that their existence frequently depends on the degree of commitment among district administrators.

The second group consists of the several projects throughout the state funded by the California Demonstration Program (AB 938). AB 938, passed by the 1969 California Legislature, authorized the state's Division of Compensatory Education to "establish demonstration programs in intensive reading and mathematics instruction that would improve the academic achievement of low-achieving student and be cost-effective."[6] Demonstration programs were initiated in 17 schools based on students' socioeconomic status and academic achievement. AB 938 projects are characterized by the treatment of an entire grade, rather than only a portion of it, by heterogeneous classes, content-area designs, and longitudinal treatment and assessment of students.

The third group consists of projects funded wholly by the district. Although there are several such projects, we chose only one for in-depth study--the program operated and funded by the Fresno Unified School District. The program is entitled Basic Language Oriented Curriculum (BLOC). BLOC's emphasis is on teaching reading by applying a special teaching method to a student's regular subject matter. It may also be characterized roughly as using homogeneous classes, individualized instruction, and a content-area design.

Funding

Most of the projects we contacted in California are supported by two primary funding sources. The first is ESEA Title I, and the second is the Secondary Demonstration Program in Reading and Math. The latter is commonly referred to by its bill number--AB 938.

California's discouragement of secondary grade participation in Title I means that most Title I projects are in grades one through six. As shown by Table 2, more than half of Title I participants are in grades K-3. Increases in total numbers of participants have occurred along with percentage concentrations. Nonetheless, some secondary-level projects do exist.*

A set of state guidelines published in 1973 set out strict prerequisites for approval of junior high and high school projects--in particular, that the projects must be shown to have been successful in terms of achieving specified grade equivalency gains. These prerequisites do not apply to early grade projects.

The combined effect of these regulations is that only a few secondary-level projects exist, mostly in places where the Title I money is allocated to an "all secondary" district.

The other major source of funding is AB 938. While there are a number of state-funded compensatory programs, only the AB 938 demonstrations are intended particularly for the secondary level.† Indeed, the other state programs are either restricted solely to the early grades (for example, Early Childhood Education) or require that elementary school children be served first.

The AB 938 program has been funded since its inception (1969-70) at about $3 million per year. In 1973-74, 24 junior high school projects were funded. The program seeks to fund exemplary projects that are cost-effective and can be successfully replicated. It is, thus, a "demonstration" program and is not really intended to have the impact of either the state's Title I allotment (over $140 million) or the state's compensatory program monies (about $180 million).

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*By federal law Title I monies are allocated to the district level, and cannot be transferred among districts. Since California has some "secondary only" districts, this money remains available. However in unified districts, the California regulation cited above directs all Title I funds to the primary grades.

†AB 938 funds only junior high school projects.

Table 2

CALIFORNIA TITLE I PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL: ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-75

(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74*	1974-75	Percent Change, 1970-74
K-3	50.4%	52.1%	51.9%	54.0%	56.5%	58.9%	+ 8.5
4-6	33.0	33.9	34.7	35.3	30.3	29.8	+ 3.2
7-9	8.9	9.1	8.2	6.6	8.4	5.7	- 3.2
10-12	4.0	3.6	3.3	2.7	3.2	2.4	- 2.6
	(215,669)	(248,289)	(303,866)	(334,417)	(583,505)*	(591,561)	(+ 375,892)

Note: Figures in parentheses show total public school participation in Title I. Figures in percent may not total 100% because preschool and ungraded programs are not included in this table.

* Participants in consolidated programs included, but were not limited to, Title I.

Source: California annual Title I reports.

A recent development was the report of California's Commission on Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education (RISE). Legislation based on the RISE report was introduced that would provide funding for junior high and high school projects according to a model first used with the state's Early Childhood Education program. Although the bill was vetoed, it could mark the beginning of a new concern for the needs of older students in California.

Finally, we considered in some detail the BLOC program, composed of five projects in the Fresno Unified School District. These projects are funded by the district.

Organization

State and District Program Administration

Compensatory programs are administered by the State's Compensatory Education Program Support Unit of the Department of Education. The Office of Program Evaluation and Research is responsible for evaluation of both the Title I and the AB 938 programs.

At the district level, a federal and state program office usually exists under the supervision of the district superintendent; this office typically includes a coordinator specifically for Title I projects. In smaller districts the superintendent performs this function. Some small districts form cooperative arrangements for operating Title I projects; these co-ops generally have their own administrative structure.

School-level administration for projects is ordinarily handled by the person responsible for instructional activities. Although in some cases the principal assumes this function, a member of project staff is usually designated. When the school has a project director or coordinator, this person may or may not be a teacher, depending on the size and type of project.

Title I Projects

Among the California secondary level Title I projects we found a wide variety of formal organizations. Project organizations similar to one or another of the California types were frequently encountered in other states, but nowhere else did we find so complete a display of the tendancy of projects to move inexorably toward organizational hierarchies.

This point can be illustrated by discussing and diagraming a series of California projects, each at a different stage of administrative layering. Figure 4a shows a district in a very simple stage. The principal is directly in charge of both administrative and curricular aspects of the Title I projects, and has hired a reading teacher who conducts classes in remedial reading for selected students.

In Figure 4b, we see a district which has acquired enough funds to treat more than a single class of students, and has consequently expanded its staff of reading teachers. Simultaneously, a reading specialist (possessing a special certification) has been added. This specialist supervises the reading teachers and has assumed major administrative duties for the project from the principal.

Figure 4c shows a district in which a more differentiated reading program now provides both reading classes and the servies of a reading center. To accomodate this, the reading clinician is now to be found in the reading center, and is considered "the first among equals" of the reading teachers. Responsiblity for administration and planning has therefore been given to the new project coordinator. This project coordinator also works with the parent advisory council which has assumed a major responsibility for project evaluation.

The district represented in Figure 4d has expanded its efforts in basic skills to include mathematics and English as a second language (ESL) along with remedial reading. This requires someone with the authority to coordinate the administration of these projects, and so we find that the project coordinator's role has been expanded. The responsibility for curriculum and for teacher training then falls to what is now called the

Master Teacher. In effect, the reading specialist's role has be reasserted over that of the classroom teachers.

Finally, in Figure 4e, we see the representation of a district at the far end of our spectrum of organizations. Since this project is one of several in the district, it is presided over by a District ESEA Coordinator, to whom both the principal and the project director report. A reading specialist still trains other classroom teachers. However, responsibility for curriculum design now resides in the committee composed of parents, teachers and administrators. At the classroom level, three "master teachers" provide team teaching for a pool of Title I students.

The accordian expansion of project organization is easy enough to see in California, but it is difficult to account for satisfactorily. Local project staff almost invariably explain their organization in terms of the curriculum design, or the students to be served, and we have followed that practice in the descriptions above. There are several other possible explanations, however. For example, to the sociologist this spectrum looks unmistakably like classic explanations of the tendancy of bureaucracies to expand and perpetuate themselves, regardless of their function or content. Critics of Title I regulations have their own explanation; they blame the proliferation of administrators and specialists on their perceived necessity to separate Title I dollars from district dollars in order to satisfy non-supplanting requirements, whether or not this produces the greatest service to students. And considering the hostility of California officials to these intermediate level projects, a fourth hypothesis may be that the development of administrative cushions is an instinctive way to deal with a hostile state bureaucracy and to imbue projects with at least the trappings of stability and power.

AB 938 Projects

Since the AB 938 projects treat an entire grade level, larger staffs are necessary. The organization chart for one such project, appearing in Figure 5, is not atypical.

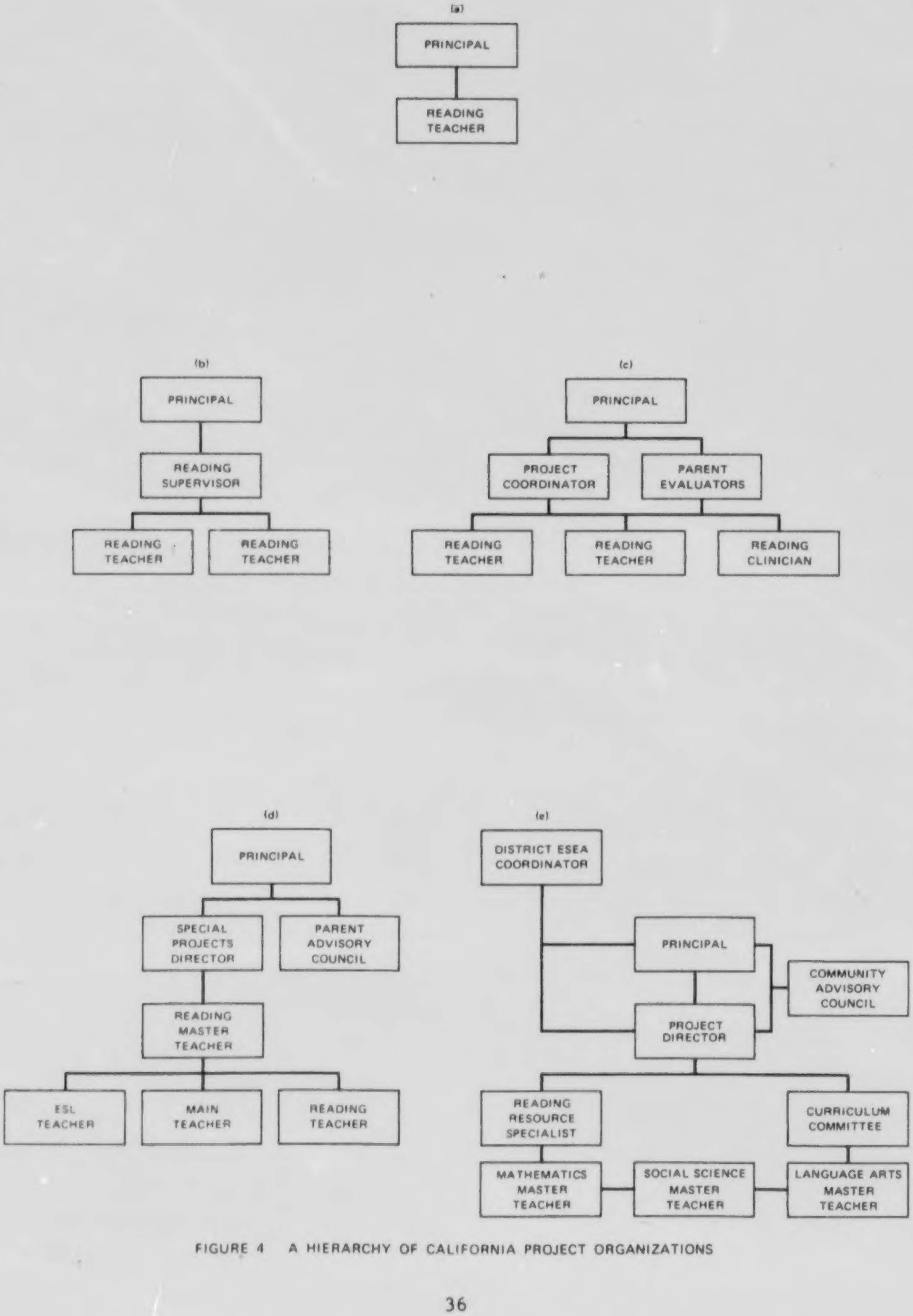
(a)
PRINCIPAL
READING TEACHER
(b)
PRINCIPAL
READING SUPERVISOR
READING TEACHER
READING TEACHER
(c)
PRINCIPAL
PROJECT COORDINATOR
PARENT EVALUATORS
READING TEACHER
READING TEACHER
READING CLINICIAN
(d)
PRINCIPAL
SPECIAL PROJECTS DIRECTOR
PARENT ADVISORY COUNCIL
READING MASTER TEACHER
ESL TEACHER
MAIN TEACHER
READING TEACHER
(e)
DISTRICT ESEA COORDINATOR
PRINCIPAL
COMMUNITY ADVISORY COUNCIL
PROJECT DIRECTOR
READING RESOURCE SPECIALIST
CURRICULUM COMMITTEE
MATHEMATICS MASTER TEACHER
SOCIAL SCIENCE MASTER TEACHER
LANGUAGE ARTS MASTER TEACHER

FIGURE 4 A HIERARCHY OF CALIFORNIA PROJECT ORGANIZATIONS

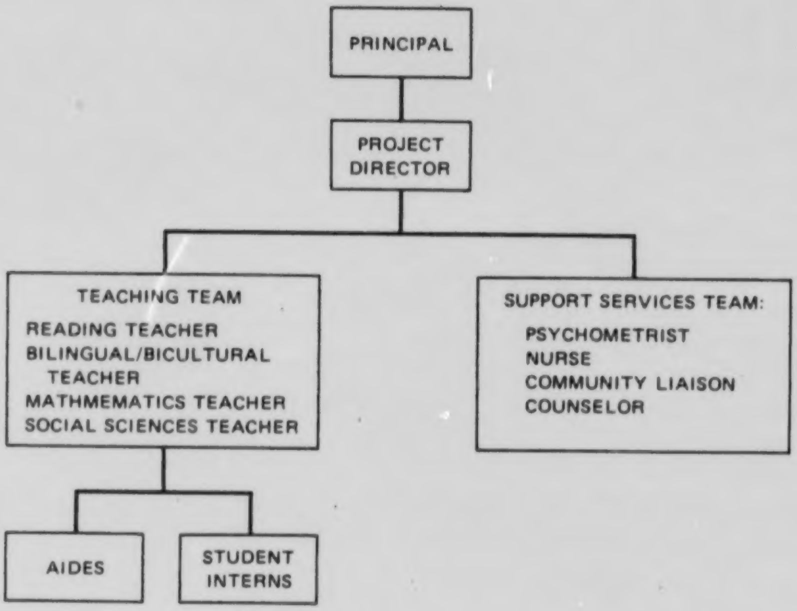
PRINCIPAL
PROJECT DIRECTOR
TEACHING TEAM
READING TEACHER
BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL TEACHER
MATHMEMATICS TEACHER
SOCIAL SCIENCES TEACHER
SUPPORT SERVICES TEAM:
PSYCHOMETRIST
NURSE
COMMUNITY LIAISON
COUNSELOR
AIDES
STUDENT INTERNS

FIGURE 5 PROJECT ORGANIZATION OF A CALIFORNIA DEMONSTRATION PROJECT (AB 938)

Teaching teams were widely reported among the AB 938 projects. In some cases, the teachers merely work together in some classes and eventually see all students in the project. In other cases, conventional classroom assignments are made, but the teachers meet in a group for planning purposes. Both arrangements are referred to as a teaching team.

All AB 938 projects use the services of counselors and other supportive personnel. At one, these professionals are considered part of the project staff itself, and include a psychometrist to aid in testing and evaluation, a nurse to diagnose physiological barriers to learning, and a community liaison. To lower the cost, a counselor assigned full-time to the project has been let go and his duties assumed by the project director, who has a counseling credential.

BLOC Fresno Projects

The BLOC program at Fresno is designed to enable teachers to give instruction in reading to any age group, using regular class texts. Based on this system, the district has developed district and project organizations that integrate reading instruction into all content areas. The resulting project organization for BLOC is a complex horizontal and vertical structure, which was created to ensure a coordinated approach to staff development and in-service training, and consistency in teaching methods across subjects. Figure 6 shows the organization of BLOC programs as described by project administrators and explained in the BLOC Implementation Handbook.

The district-level BLOC coordinator has overall administrative responsibility for the various projects. Committees of project staff members and district specialists consult with the BLOC coordinator about the development of school-level projects.

At the school level, the learning resource teacher (LRT) is chosen on the basis of experience in "reading-oriented program(s) or specialized training." The LRT is responsible for implementing the reading program, for in-service training, and for assisting in "selection and ordering of program-related supplementary content materials."[7] The Handbook

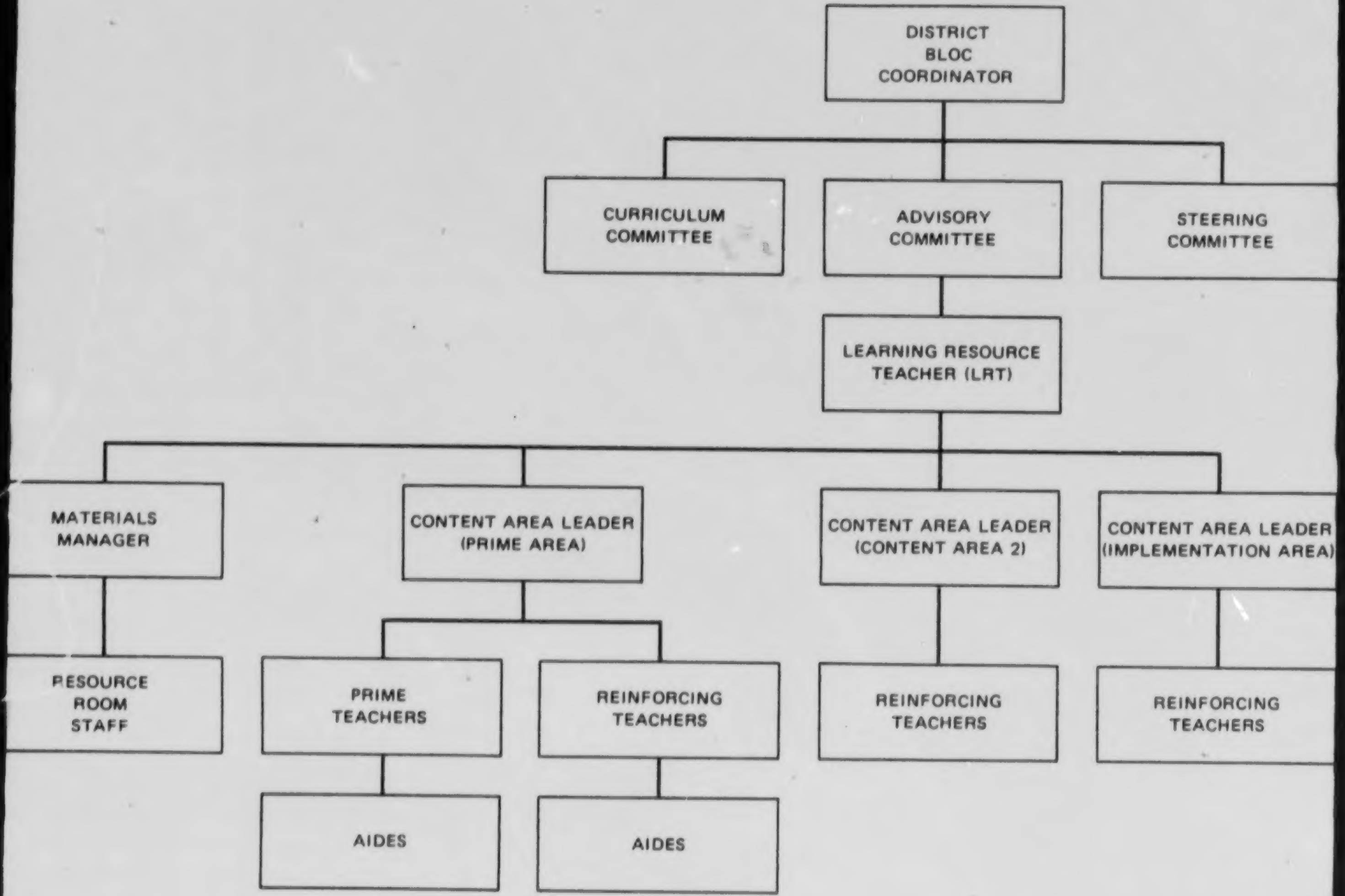
DISTRICT BLOC COORDINATOR
CURRICULUM COMMITTEE
ADVISORY COMMITTEE
STEERING COMMITTEE
LEARNING RESOURCE TEACHER (LRT)
MATERIALS MANAGER
CONTENT AREA LEADER (PRIME AREA)
CONTENT AREA LEADER (CONTENT AREA 2)
CONTENT AREA LEADER (IMPLEMENTATION AREA)
RESOURCE ROOM STAFF
PRIME TEACHERS
REINFORCING TEACHERS
REINFORCING TEACHERS
REINFORCING TEACHERS
AIDES
AIDES

FIGURE 6 DISTRICT ORGANIZATION OF THE FRESNO BASIC BLOC PROGRAM

cautions that this person should not be used as a substitute for absent teachers.

In each content area one teacher is designated leader, and is responsible for training other "reinforcing teachers" in the use of the reading assistance techniques.

The luxuriant growth of organization in the BLOC projects seems to result from the combination of a content-area design and the requisites of the BLOC curriculum method.

Students

Identification and Selection

Students are identified for Title I projects through standardized testing to determine grade equivalency. Tests are the Stanford Achievement Test, the California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), the California Test of Mental Measurement, and others. Administration dates for the tests are about evenly split between October-May and May-May. Selection for participation is usually based on a student's being a specified number of years below grade level. The average cutoff is two years below grade level, although projects do not rigidly adhere to this figure. They normally select the bottom of the identified group. Available funding is the most important determinant of project size and thus of the number of students who will be selected and the severity of their difficulties. Most Title I projects administer one or more "diagnostic tests" after participation lists have been made up.

Schools are selected for participation in the California Demonstration Program by competitive application, with preference toward schools with "the greatest need for such effort as indicated by their history of educational failure and lack of expectation of attainment."[8] All the students in a participating school are tested, however, to evaluate project success in "raising the competence level of participating students to reflect a normal distribution of achievement..."[9] All projects are required to use the CTBS, which is administered on an October-May schedule. Once a school is selected, special treatment is not just provided to those students in the greatest need. Instruction must be offered to all students at a particular grade level, in heterogeneous groupings. The project moves with the students, so that a seventh grade class in the project will also be treated in the eighth and ninth grades of a junior high school; special education students are exempted from the project.

BLOC projects select entering junior high students (seventh grade) who read at 5.9 GE or below, and entering high school students who read at 7.0 or below. These scores are obtained from previous-year administration of the CTBS. When the identified students reach the school, they are given the Nelson Silent Reading Test and the San Diego Quick Assessment as a further screening device and as a confirmation of CTBS scores.

Exit

Just as Title I projects depend on GE scores for identification and selection, GE is also used to determine when students will leave the project. In projects that use only an instructional lab to which students are periodically scheduled, a student may simply be removed from the lab schedule when an appropriate GE is reached. Projects that use a reading class design have more significant scheduling problems. Such projects may find it more convenient to wait until the end of the year to reschedule students who have satisfied exit criteria. The Elsinore project, in addition to its normal October-May testing, gives a standardized test in January to a sample of students to aid in "process evaluation."

One Title I project uses as an alternative exit criterion the determination that a student has "overcome his failure syndrome." In practice this means that any student who is several years behind will be unable to achieve GE within the one or two years of treatment available, and an alternative exit criterion is the only solution.

As indicated, the AB 938 projects treat a heterogeneous group of students for three years. Since everyone participates, no special provision is made for exit; if a student improves, he is merely given more challenging work.

The BLOC program retains the student for at least a full year after he is selected. Since the BLOC system uses the same subject matter as the rest of the school, no need is felt to return the student to non-project classes. This unhurried approach is also apparent in the attitude of the BLOC district coordinator, who holds that measures of gain in GE are valid only when based on a three-year longitudinal evaluation.

Teachers

Certification

The California Education Code (Section 13130 et seq.) sets forth the general rules governing teacher certification and requirements. Recently adopted provisions of the Code require that all teachers demonstrate "... a knowledge of the various methods of teaching reading, to a level deemed adequate by the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing by successful completion of a program of study approved by the Commission or passage of a Commission-approved reading examination."[10] The provisions apply to all except industrial arts, physical education, music, art, and home economics teachers. The state's teacher preparation colleges have now altered their preservice programs to accomodate these new requirements.

California also offers Reading Specialist Certification (RSC). The Education Code notes that the Commission should emphasize both "appropriate professional specialized preparation [and] supervised participation or student teaching" in the granting of RSCs.[11]

In Appendix D, Exhibit D-2 shows the Commission guidelines for approval of RSC programs. Exhibit 3 shows the San Jose State University College of Education's interpretation of the Commission guidelines.

Commission guidelines are vague about the circumstances under which a specialist credential is required. Apparently the credential was not required of project staff members contacted by our survey because few project leaders at the school site reported having such certification. The RSC is more often held by district-level personnel. Its value seems to be mainly as evidence of a certain level of competence, rather than as a prerequisite to any particular position.

Experience and Other Teacher Characteristics

Possibly as a result of the lack of specific state guidelines regarding the qualifications of project leaders, prior experience of teachers was reported to be an important consideration in the selection of staff for California projects. The experience desired varied from project to project. Some project administrators look for elementary teaching experience, feeling that the elementary-experienced teacher has greater understanding of teaching reading, as such, and greater involvement in the broader spectrum of the child's development.

Other administrators prefer teachers with junior high or secondary-level experience, saying that these teachers are acquainted with the particular problems of adolescents and are better able to increase the motivation of students.

Regardless of preference for elementary or secondary experience, Title I projects tend to hire new staff for projects, rather than reassigning existing staff. Elementary experience is often preferred by projects with lab arrangements or classes in which only reading is taught; secondary experience seems to be preferred when reading instruction is incorporated with some subject such as language arts or social science.

Beyond this, many Title I project administrators expressed the desire to find people who seem committed to the undertaking. The Corning/Red Bluff co-op director said, "Teacher selection has more to do with the people than with their specific backgrounds. We attempt to identify those with qualities that would make for success in these programs." One principal, facing an increasingly serious threat of discontinued funding, said that his lone project teacher was traditional in method and that he would like to replace her with one who could "develop motivation [in the students] as well as skills."

AB 938 projects seem to look for teachers with junior high or secondary experience when making additions to the project staff.

However, almost all teachers in the projects sampled were "converted" to project teachers through in-service training. The project director was generally selected by virtue of prior experience in reading instruction or at least some exposure to a reading program.

Both the Santa Barbara and the Fremont/Pomona AB 938 project directors emphasized the conversion strategy, saying that the teacher's attitude is the most important factor, since the skills of teaching reading could be acquired.

The AB 938 evaluation reports in detailing the history of the program state that the staff is composed of "carefully selected" teachers. One interviews, however, suggest that expediency seems to have been the initial criterion. Careful selection was possible only after the initial staff had been hired and the project was underway.

The BLOC program, with its emphasis on staff development and gradual expansion can afford more leeway in the selection of teachers. Initial expertise is required only of the LRT and the content-area leaders.

Exhibit 1 shows the job description for the LRT provided in the BLOC Implementation Handbook. As shown, the reading-oriented qualifications are listed as "desirable." Our discussions with the district administrator for BLOC suggested that persons assigned as LRTs are usually former English teachers with some background in reading instruction.

Content-area leaders seem to be selected on the basis of their interest in becoming part of the enterprise. Prior reading training was said to be valuable but not essential for these staff members.

In-Service Training

All Title I projects seem to offer some in-service training, although it is generally sporadic. The most ambitious in-service effort among Title I projects we contacted was at the Los Nietos project. There, the director has set up a five-year plan for the development of program and staff. Results of a teachers' needs-assessment conducted among the staff were used to develop in-service instruction. This instruction

Exhibit 1

JOB DESCRIPTION: LEARNING RESOURCE TEACHER

Required Qualifications

(1) California teaching credential.
(2) Successful teaching experience, preferably at several grade levels.
(3) Successful experience in working with teachers, educators, and parents.

Desirable Qualifications

(1) Experience in reading-oriented program or specialized reading training.
(2) Experience with several different instructional programs.
(3) Broad reading background (well-read).

Duties

(1) Responsible to the principal for the implementation of the reading program.
(2) Responsible for assisting the BLOC reading coordinator in program.
(3) Attend in-service meetings conducted by the BLOC reading coordinator, which will be directly related to the BLOC program.
(4) Responsible for assisting in testing and evaluating student's reading progress.
(5) Supervise and monitor the prescriptive instruction of students working in the learning resource room/lab in cooperation with the classroom teacher (prime or reinforcing).
(6) Attend those conferences approved by district that are directly related to the professional growth of this position.
(7) Assist with district-approved institutes and workshops during the regular school year.
(8) Responsible for in-service training for faculty, substitutes, aides, and other interested parties.
(9) Keep school community informed of program's progress.
(10) Collaborate with content-area leaders in selection and ordering of program-related supplementary content materials.
(11) Serve on school interview committee for prospective teachers and aides in reading program.
(12) Supervise the coding, scheduling, and management of multimedia material, for teachers, aides, and students.
(13) Work in cooperation with administration in scheduling students in reading program.

Recommendations

(1) Learning resource teacher is not to be used as substitute for absent teachers.
(2) Learning resource teacher should cooperate with librarian to integrate library use into program.

Source: "BLOC Implementation Handbook," Fresno Unified School District, Fresno, California (June 1974), p. 10.

centers on techniques for individualizing instruction, increasing motivation, and modifying behavior. Workshops lasting one to four days are conducted periodically, and some additional training is provided during a weekly meeting of the principal and project staff. The principal attributes the overall success of the project to this in-service as well as to close staff/administration interaction and to student participation in some decision-making.

AB 938 projects stress in-service training more than Title I projects do. In replication projects, prospective staff are often sent to the original project site to view, firsthand, the workings of the project. Thus, teachers at one site provide training for those at the next. In addition, consultants are sometimes brought in to provide in-service training for the staff. There is also a common free hour for daily staff meetings.

As discussed previously, the essence of the BLOC program is staff development. Thus, the training of staff is set out specifically in the Handbook and was stressed by all project staff contacted. BLOC in-service training is hierarchical. The district coordinator provides in-service training for all 46 LRTs in the projects operating in the K-12 levels in the district, five of which are junior high school projects. The LRTs, in turn, provide in-service training for the content-area leaders, who then provide in-service training for project teachers in their respective content areas.

Materials

Software

Title I projects seem to use eclectic combinations of staff-developed and commercial curriculum materials. Our interviews indicate widespread use of commercially developed materials, although this may not be readily admitted. Most staff said that they prefer teacher-developed materials and that, for best use, commercial materials must be modified to meet local needs. However, the extent to which materials actually are modified is unclear. The process seems to be a cut-and-paste operation, rather than a substantial change of content. The one school that reported using commercial materials fairly intact blamed time constraints for the lack of teacher-developed or modified materials.

Teachers and directors frequently stressed the problem of selecting from among the various commercially available materials. All agreed that the quantity is adequate but that finding quality is difficult (materials that address the skill deficiencies of the students in the context of material interesting to junior high or high school students). Only one project specifically reported having conducted a needs-assessment among students for the purpose of materials selection.

The Los Nietos Title I project appoints a committee of teachers to select materials. This committee looks for materials by reviewing commercial catalogues, attending conferences, and the like. It has developed a list of existing and potentially useful materials that is used by project teachers.

Initially, a major criterion of AB 938 project evaluation was program development. The problem inherent in materials selection for heterogeneous groupings was thus compounded by the feeling among project staffs that extensive acquisition of commercial materials would be an indicator of having accomplished the required development. This attitude appears to have led to acquiring materials for their own sake. The state, finding it increasingly difficult to evaluate this "development," finally dropped it from the list of program accomplishments to be rated. As student outcome and cost came to predominate the state evaluation, selection of materials could again be oriented to instructional processes rather than to a project's self-inflicted quota.

AB 938 projects seem to share the problems that Title I projects have with materials--namely, selection from abundance and ambivalence regarding the value of teacher-developed materials. The director of one AB 938 project said that the "materials representatives follow the money ... going to special projects" and that proper selection is important. The Santa Barbara AB 938 director felt that teacher-developed materials are of better quality and should be encouraged. Other AB 938 projects tended to explain their use of commercial materials in terms of the modification process described above.

The BLOC program, which emphasizes a method of teaching rather than a specified curriculum, encourages the use of regular classroom textbooks rather than newly acquired materials. The BLOC project plan includes a materials manager (see Figure 10), generally the school librarian, who is responsible for the inventory and distribution of materials, the administration of tests, and even some instruction under the direction of the LRT. With the exception of one Title I project's curriculum committee, we found no other such delegation of authority for materials.

Hardware

Instructional hardware is used rather generally by all Title I projects contacted. Its use is sometimes described as a "multimedia approach" to instruction. Such hardware may include audiovisual equipment (films, record players, tape recorders), reading machines (controlled readers, tachistoscopes), videotape recorders and players, and computer-assisted instruction. This hardware is normally concentrated in instructional labs, sometimes called resource centers.

The director of one Title I project said that they are attempting to increase "nonbook" instruction in the project. When contacted, they were in their first full day of a computer-assisted math program (CAMP) funded by the Emergency School Aid Act. The staff of the math project had been given in-service training in the use of CAMP equipment, as had the paraprofessionals who would directly supervise its use.

AB 938 projects seem to make moderate use of hardware. An exception was one project which made use of "several thousand dollars worth" of equipment, which had been purchased for a terminated Title I project, and was found collecting dust in a storage room at the school; this equipment became the nucleus of the project's resource center.

The BLOC projects apparently use projectors, calculators, and so on only when they are readily available and make no attempt to include hardware as an integral part of the project design.

Methods

Most Title I projects contacted use homogeneous classroom groupings in a conventional-classroom, one-teacher setting. AB 938 requires heterogeneous ability groupings of the project population.

Title I projects appear to treat homogeneous groups mainly as a matter of instructional convenience and fiscal accountability. Concentrating staff expertise and any supporting services in a single classroom is more convenient than training more teachers to deal with a heterogeneous group (which would be larger). Fiscal accountability is facilitated by homogeneous groups because students receiving extra services can be more easily identified.

Even some AB 938 projects, which by state mandate are to provide heterogeneous instruction, appear to be moving toward homogeneous ability groupings within classes. The Jurupa project reported that "problem students" will probably be placed in homogeneous classrooms with one teacher in the near future, rather than remaining in the open-classroom, team-taught, regular project classes. Irwin/Fresno, in assigning students according to an instructional matrix, has a built-in ability grouping scheme.

The BLOC program uses a heterogeneous arrangement in the reinforcing, content area classes but groups students homogeneously for the prime area classes.

Despite this marked preference for concentrating special services, we detected some feeling among staff that teaching reading in a conventional classroom arrangement is not enough. Many Title I projects, such as that in Santa Maria, have added an instructional lab for more intensive and individualized instruction. One project includes enrichment students (students shown to be at a higher level than project students) to "improve motivation." Others extend special compensatory assistance to students in their math and social science classes.

Incentive systems--either of the contract or the token-economy variety--are frequently used, especially in the heterogeneous classes.

Here, the varied ability levels necessitate a more individualized instruction and force students to work alone more often. This raises problems of motivation that the reward device is thought to help solve. The Pelton reward system gives points to students for completion of assignments and for attendance. Irwin/Fresno's reward system is built around completion of one of the reading areas in the instructional matrix. The Santa Barbara project uses the contract system, wherein the student and teacher agree on the performance to be achieved within a specified time. In practice, the contract may look like a reward device. Exhibit 2 shows two examples of contracts used in Santa Barbara. Contract A provides for performance choices, but 100 points must be achieved to earn full credit. Contract B, on the other hand, does not seem to provide for any variation in performance.

Replication

California, more than most of our other case-study states, offered an opportunity to examine the dissemination and replication of project designs. By and large, the California Title I projects showed little interest in interproject dissemination. Existing projects felt beleaguered and hoped only to secure their own next year's funding; they had little reason to expect to replicate. AB 938 projects and the Fresno BLOC were in very different positions, however.

AB 938 was intended, as a program, to develop models that would be easily replicated as well as highly cost-effective. Each year the state determines the cost-effectiveness of each operating project. Those least cost-effective are discontinued and are replaced by replications of those that are left.

The extent to which actual replication occurs is subject to disagreement. An original project will say that its effort has been replicated successfully at another site. A replication project will say that, using the guidelines of the original project, the new effort has been successful because it "modified the original project to meet local needs."

Exhibit 2

SANTA BARBARA AB 938 PROJECT CONTRACT FORMS

NAME______________________________

LANGUAGE ARTS CONTRACT   WEEK OF MARCH 19

100 points needed for full credit for this week.
Choose____points from this section.

______1. Scope, 'Word Power', p. 22 . . . . 5 points
______2. Scope, Crossword, p. 23 . . . . 10 points
______3. Scope, 'The Distant Dome', p. 13 . . . . 10 points
______4. Scope, 'Spotlight', p. 14 . . . . 5 points
______5. Scope, Sports, p. 18 . . . . 5 points
______6. Scope, The Eye, p. 16. . . . . 5 points
______7. Scope, The Ear, p. 17. . . . . 5 points
______8. Directions 2, "The Time I Ran Away", p. 131. . 10 points
______9. Directions 2, "You Figure How the Parts Go Together". . . . . 20 points
_____10. Directions 2, "Anything I Want". . . . . 15 points

COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING ASSIGNMENTS. . .EARN____POINTS IN THIS SECTION

______1. Reading for Meaning________________________ ________
______2. Reading for Concepts_______________________ ________
______3. Dimensions_________________________________ ________
______4. Cracking the Code__________________________ ________
______5. We Are Black_______________________________ ________
______6. Be a Better Reader_________________________ ________
______7. Action_____________________________________ ________
______8. Conference and Participation in Class Discussions__________________________________ ________
______9. Specific Skill Series - Title_____Book______ ________
_____10. S.R.A. Kit_________________________________ ________
_____11. Step Up Your Reading Power_________________ ________
_____12. Voices of Dissent__________________________ ________
_____13. 50 Great American Short Stories____________ ________
_____14. Creative Writing___________________________ ________
_____15. Countries and Cultures_____________________ ________
_____16. ____ ________
_____17. ____ ________
_____18. ____ ________

This week I used my time (choose one) poorly, wisely
The quality of my work was (choose one) good, average, poor
I completed____________points.
Teacher's evaluation of your last week's work_______________

Contract "A"

CONTRACT

MY NAME IS______________________________

Paths to Follow (Name of Book)
WINNERS ALL -- UNIT #3 (Name of chapter or unit)

__________ I have read the 5 stories and 1 poem.
__________ I have done the paper on Miracle Miler, page 106.
__________ I have written, corrected and rewritten a 75 word summary on my favorite story in this unit.
__________ I have done pages 120, 121, 136, 137.
__________ I have completed the phonics paper on Listen for the Difference.
__________ I have read 2 sport stories that are not in this unit and written a summary on each.
__________ I have completed page 147 - write your questions and answers.
__________ I have completed the review paper, Looking Back and Remembering.

SIGNED____________________________

Contract "B"

Source: Reading Handbook for Teachers: Exemplary Reading Programs La Cumbre Junior High, Santa Barbara High School District, undated.

The question of the replication phenomenon may be moot because, beginning with the 1972-73 state evaluation, the program development variable was dropped. The evaluations now place strict emphasis on the variables of student achievement and cost-effectiveness. Therefore, how closely a project replicates its supposed model does not really matter, so long as the gain-to-cost ratio is high. This being the criterion, project staffs inevitably inject their own ideas of project organization and methods into the replication to achieve the high ranking needed to retain their funding.

State evaluations indicate that "replication" projects tend to have slightly higher gains than do their parent projects. This would not seem too surprising if the parent projects had "worked the bugs out of the system" and the replications were allowed to make further modifications in design.

The Fresno BLOC program has also accomplished prodigious feats of replication. It is now installed in 5 of the district's 20 junior high schools and high schools, and implementation in others is planned. The nature of the BLOC design itself seems to have assured a high degree of homogeneity among schools insofar as teaching method is concerned. As discussed above, the BLOC plan does not attempt to provide comparable materials at participating schools.

MICHIGAN

Michigan is assisting older students with basic skills problems both in traditional school-site projects and in many alternative schools. These alternative schools are often separated in both organization and location from regular schools. Students placed in the alternative school are characterized as potential dropouts or school failures by virtue of an inability to relate to the traditional school environment. By altering hours of attendance, disciplinary requirements, and degree of individualization, the alternative school projects seek to create an environment in which such students may succeed.

The character of compensatory education in Michigan's alternative schools is also affected strongly by the State Board of Education policy mandating the development of an overall accountability model for the state. Two of the six categories of this effort as defined by the Department of Education are:

- Identification, discussion, and dissemination of common goals for Michigan education.
- Approaches to educational challenges based on performance objectives consistent with the goals.[12]

Thus, both students and faculty are urged to articulate and choose among individual educational goals. In some cases, the student may decide that high school graduation is the desired outcome. Just as frequently, however, other outcomes--such as obtaining a certain job, qualifying for an occupation, or passing a qualifying test--are the student's objective. In either case, remediation is offered within the context of the student's self defined goal.

Another characteristic of Michigan projects is that all the projects contacted have a work experience component. Such experience is felt to provide the student with benefits that spill over into school performance. Those benefits could include seeing an immediate need for acquisition of academic skills, getting used to conforming to the disciplines of a work schedule, developing a general sense of responsibility, and perhaps even seeing that attending school is a better alternative than going directly into a job.

The specific project information that follows attempts to explain how these general state characteristics are reflected in the organization of projects, personnel within them, and instructional materials and methods in Michigan.

Organization

State-level administration of compensatory programs in Michigan is divided among various offices within the Bureau of Educational Services in the State Department of Education. The Office of Federal Programs administers Title I and other federal programs serving disadvantaged students. Below this level, a supervisor for Title I is given responsibility for a specified geographical area within the state. The bulk of the Title I effort is at the early elementary level; junior and senior high school efforts reflect the state board policy of providing vocational guidance and counseling for older students other than direct instruction.

District offices and personnel seem to exert a very active and direct supervision over most alternative schools. In at least one alternative school, however, the project operates under the auspices of the community-based continuing education program, which includes adult education, recreation, and the like. Here the principal of the alternative school is called a community school director to match the titles of administrators of other community projects and is less closely linked to the traditional school district. Smaller, school-based remedial projects that emphasize academic skills are also subject to strong district control, but this is buffered somewhat by the regular school administration.

The Detroit program for dropouts reveals a different organizational pattern in which a district staff person has authority over both junior high and high school efforts.

In general, all three types of projects--alternative, remedial, and dropout--value work experience as a strategy for keeping marginal students in school. The relative emphasis of the three approaches determines whether the schooling stresses retention through graduation, acquisition of functional literacy or acquisition of work related skills and credentials.

Funding

In general, each project in Michigan derives its funding from a variety of sources. The relative contribution of these sources will depend on the project's emphasis. The projects contacted that offered remedial reading and math activities in traditional settings were supported mainly by ESEA Title I. Table 3 gives a history of Title I participation.

Projects were sometimes able to acquire state money, from a rather obscure portion of the Section 3 program, but this program is directed primarily to grades K-6. Special education funds are normally not awarded to the projects contacted. (Only one project had such funding; in it, the director and some staff members are certified for special education teaching.) Some remedial projects found they could expand their scope slightly and thereby become eligible for special state programs for older students. For example, the addition of special counseling services or a work experience component could qualify a project for funding under the state's Pregnant Teen or Juvenile Delinquent programs. The extra money could then be used to expand basic skills instruction to such target students and to bolster the basic skills staff. Most of the money for supporting Michigan's alternative schools seems to come from district budgets.

Finding a number of funding sources is important for alternative school projects because such projects often must acquire a physical plant as well as staff and curriculum materials. In these projects, the contribution from Title I may be one-third or less, and special state program monies are crucial, as is a strong district commitment to the project.

Table 3

MICHIGAN TITLE I PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL: ACADEMIC YEARS 1971-75

(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	Percent Change 1970-75
pK-3	43.7%	50%	NA	52%	50.9%	+7.2
4-6	26.1	24	NA	27	28.3	+2.2
7-8	10.1	13	NA	10	10.6	+ .5
9-12	17.1	12	NA	10	10.2	-5.9
Other	2.8	1	NA	1	NA	NA
N	(59,009)	(84,922)		(125,760)	(128,436)	(69,427)

Note: Figures in parentheses show public and nonpublic participation in Title I during the regular school year only. Figures in percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Source: Michigan Annual Title I reports.

The projects for dropouts also attempt to provide a range of services as wide as possible--basic skills, counseling, orientation to job-related skills, and work experience--and therefore also face the necessity of locating multiple funding sources. The Detroit dropout project is a year-round and fairly expensive enterprise. Their attempts to secure funding are illustrative. In addition to district funding, the Detroit project has acquired support from Title I, the State Vocational Rehabilitation Service, the city, and even a private foundation (a grant to cover the cost of Workmen's Compensation for the students).

Students

Identification and Selection

Generally, a student is identified for an alternative education program if, "but for the alternative school, this student would not be in school at all." Similar statements from all alternative projects contacted seem to refer to two student characteristics: The student is a dropout or potential dropout of the regular school; The student is capable of greater academic achievement. Of course, there is considerable variation in how such designations are made.

Judgment as to whether a pupil is likely to drop out of school is based primarily on the recommendations of teachers, counselors and other pupil services staff, administrators, and parents. This criterion focuses on problems such as poor attendance, disciplinary problems, classroom failure, and a general inability to conform to the standards of conduct required by the traditional school situation. Further, some students are judged to be capable of greater academic achievement in a setting which does not have the disciplinary, scheduling, and interactive requirements of the traditional school setting. Sometimes these academic judgments are supplemented by testing, but testing is seldom considered determinative or even important. At most, testing may tip the scales for a borderline case.

Assignment to remedial projects, within the traditional schools, on the other hand, is based largely on standardized testing. Projects reporting the use of tests--such as the Metropolitan Achievement Test, the California Achievement Test, or the Wide-Ranging Achievement Test--identify students who are a specified number of years (usually two) below GE. One project identified students placing in the lowest 15th percentile of the Nelson-Denney test. Students are often dropped from the remedial program if teachers or counselors feel that disciplinary or attendance problems are extreme enough to make remediation efforts too difficult.

The identification criterion for special dropout projects is, obviously, dropping out of school. The state mandates school attendance until the age of 16. Special projects for dropouts are not available until the student reaches that age. Dropouts may also attend some alternative schools, as discussed above.

Exit

Exit from alternative education or dropout projects depends on the goal which student and faculty select. When placement is for the modification of behavior patterns, a student will exit when a subjective evaluation determines that she/he is able to cope with the regular school program. When the objective is some outcome other than graduation or return to regular classes, exit occurs when the specified objective has been reached. For instance, students may exit the Detroit dropout project when they have shown the ability to "hold a job and accumulate approximately six months of satisfactory work history."

There appears to be little provision for exit from remedial projects, other than graduation. Project designs assume that remedial work is necessary for the identified and selected students throughout their high school careers. Therefore, exit occurs when the student either graduates or drops out.

Teachers

The teaching certificate available in Michigan is the basis for any further qualification that the teacher obtains. The elementary certificate qualifies one to teach grades K-8 in all subjects and grade 9 in subject matter corresponding to the applicant's major or minor in grades 9-12.[13]

To extend a teacher's qualification from the basic area of the certificate, a teacher education institution must recommend an endorsement in the new area based on additional work completed. This ensorsement may extend the effect of the certificate to different levels or subject areas.

If a teacher completes course work in reading instruction to the satisfaction of the preservice institution, a reading specialist endorsement will be attached to the certificate. Exhibit D-4 in Appendix D shows the course work adopted for reading specialist endorsement at Michigan State University. According to the Office of State Teacher Certification and the projects contacted, there are no statewide requirements for possession of this endorsement. The state certification office noted that an approval by the state instructional specialist for the respective district is required of teachers in state or federal programs. This approval does not, however, seem to be of concern to the projects contacted and appears to be a seldom exercised veto power over project staff selection. Only one project contacted mentioned having staff members with such a certificate endorsement.

The alternative education projects contacted require only that staff hold standard teaching certificates at the appropriate level. One project that emphasizes returning students to the regular school environment as quickly as possible said that special education teachers are not considered. Another district, in which the project seems to be somewhere between regular school remedial classwork and special education classes, emphasizes the special education background. Its project plan requires that at least one staff member be certified to teach the emotionally handicapped and that the director have full special education certification. Between these extremes is a project that emphasizes developing self-discipline in the students so that they can return to school or qualify for work. The project administrator said they seek staff who are "cool, together, not threatened, who can run a 'tight ship' with reasonable demands"--something of a behavior modification design. All project personnel agreed that teachers at alternative schools must be willing to accept the unorthodox classroom behavior typical of project students, while helping them to accomplish success experiences to counteract previous patterns of school failure.

Some in-service training is usually provided for the staff of alternative school projects. Most projects hold a summer workshop (especially for new staff) and regular meetings of project staff at least weekly. In two projects having few official in-service sessions, the directors felt more should be provided. One indicated that techniques of behavior modification should be stressed; the other felt that the teachers' expressed desire for more reading instruction techniques should be addressed.

Like the alternative educational projects, the remedial projects require only the basic teaching certificate. One project director said that some reading background is an advantage for applicant teachers. Another said that some teachers in the project have the reading specialist endorsement, but this is apparently an effect of exposure to the project rather than a selection criterion. One remedial project with a reading coordinator at the school level said that the coordinator determines the in-service needs of the staff. The coordinator may contract with the district to provide the in-service sessions that she herself cannot conduct. Another project has a materials contract with a private company. In this case, the company provides consultants who conduct in-service sessions as part of the contract.

At the Detroit dropout project, some staff members hold counseling certificates. The primary staff member is a teacher-coordinator who is required to have basic knowledge of counseling and guidance techniques and a master's degree, as well as a teaching certificate. In addition, the teacher-coordinator must have at least three years of successful school experience with adolescent pupils (defined as grades 7-12). In-service training for the project consists of monthly meetings of project staff, in which district personnel participate.

An unusual staff development effort is being conducted by the Ypsilanti Personalized Education Program (PEP). Although PEP is essentially an alternative education project, it retains geographical and organizational proximity to the regular school. According to the director, basic skills receive heavy emphasis, but efforts are hampered by lack of an organized approach and qualified staff in the K-6 projects. He is working with project staff to develop a continuation of the Ypsilanti Individualized Instructional Model (YIIM). This model, operational in grades K-6, is built around instructional objectives in reading and math. He feels that engaging teachers in replicating the YIIM for grades 7-12 contributes to staff development as well as materials development. In this way, teachers are more likely to accept the YIIM, once developed, and will be better equipped to refine it through later use. Consequently, rather than imposing an instructional approach, the district encourages project teachers to develop their own.

Materials

Software

Projects contacted seem to agree that the major problem relative to curriculum materials is making proper selections from among the variety available. Once this is done, they feel it necessary to modify the material to meet the requirements of project students. This process was frequently described as "individualizing instruction." In practice, the modification technique usually consists of dividing the materials according to deficiencies addressed and then administering them to students without much differentiation.

Most projects deal with materials in a fairly ad hoc manner; that is, they are selected and modified by the joint efforts of project administrators and staff, and district personnel. Three projects, however, are attempting different approaches. In these cases, selection and modification of particular materials are either made an integral part of project management and staff development or are completely turned over to another agency.

The YIIM, previously mentioned, was originally developed for grades K-6 and is built around a continuum of objectives in reading and math, with some relation to the state's program. The YIIM is divided into some 1200 instructional objectives in math and 1400 objectives in reading. Students are placed on the continuum by a battery of criterion-referenced tests. Location on the YIIM indicates to teachers which of a variety of teaching and curriculum alternatives to use in helping the student complete that objective.

As discussed previously, the K-6 YIIM is completely operational, and continuation of the system for grades 7-8 is being tested. District staff and project teachers are collaborating to develop the YIIM for grades 9-12. A district administrator said that the instructional objectives are overly specific for the requirements of late junior high and high school students. He feels, however, that the project provides good staff development and is also fairly easy to adapt to personal teaching styles.

The Grand Rapids project has entered into materials contracts with several private companies. These contracts specify what materials will be provided and what in-service training and consulting services the company will provide in support of the materials.

The Detroit dropout project uses materials targeted to skills necessary for getting and holding a job. These materials were all developed by district and project staff and provide practice in the more practical areas of job preparation, such as development of work attitudes, filling out forms and applications, and managing a personal budget.

Hardware

Hardware is generally viewed as a vehicle for accomplishing fairly specific instructional objectives. Hardware is seen as a particularly good method of providing individualized instruction. One project director told us that in hardware, as well as in software, variety is the key to success. The effective use of any particular equipment will thus depend on adequately diagnosing students' problems, understanding the particular student outcomes desired by the project, and then having access to a range of materials to apply to specific student needs.

One district's junior high school has what is called a TV reading program, which makes extensive use of videotape equipment. Lessons are developed from regular network television programs. Students also read aloud into the television camera, and the recording is used to point out student difficulties. The philosophy behind this method seems to be that a medium familiar and accepted by the student can be used to develop one perhaps less so, such as reading.

Methods

Underlying the instructional methods used by all project staffs is one basic assumption: For whatever reason, entering project students do not see the value of attending school. The first order of business, therefore, is to give the student a goal relevant to his personal ambitions and abilities and to show how the educational process can help him or her to achieve it.

Precise methods of working out his general proposition vary considerably across projects contacted. The use of a contract is widespread, coupled in one alternative project with a student government, whose members have fairly extensive authority for aspects of their schooling. The emphasis of both arrangements is to provide some successful experiences for a student who has often experienced failure. According to one project director, once such success is experienced, the student tends to progress quickly in the project.

The high school project for dropouts in Detroit centers on an orientation class of 30 to 40 students, which meets during the first period at the high school site. Staff-developed materials are used to teach job-related skills such as grooming, being on time, and applying for jobs. After this class, the students attend regular high school classes in basic skills conducted by teachers who are not considered part of the project staff. In the afternoon, the students go to the jobs that constitute their work experience. The district director said that such work experience either introduces the former dropout to possible occupations or convinces him that additional schooling is the more desirable alternative.

There appeared to be many more heterogeneous classroom assignments in Michigan than in the other states studied. One project staffer said that heterogeneity minimizes the bad image that project classes might otherwise have. In most schools, however, such an arrangement appears to be a matter of convenience.

MISSOURI

In Missouri we found a small but growing commitment to the delivery of basic skills to secondary students. Financial investment in reading programs at the secondary level is still minimal, but several state and locally initiated policies of serving the adolescent age group suggest better prospects for the near future.

Recent state legislation in special education has provided funds for remedial reading programs through House Bill 474 (HB 474). Trends in teacher certification also indicate some interest in reading services for the upper grades. For instance, two hours of reading instruction are now required of all secondary English teachers, and a reading specialist certificate is mandatory for staff in remedial reading classes. At the local level, a few districts have begun developmental reading programs for secondary students, and a coordinator of reading programs is not unusual.

These trends are countered, however, by the continuing reduction of secondary student participation in Missouri's Title I program. It also appears that significant problems with Missouri's remedial programs have yet to be resolved. For instance, dually funded HB 474 and Title I remedial reading projects must iron out differences in admission guidelines. At the school level, project staff and regular program teachers must be encouraged to establish mutually effective program goals to avoid a potentially serious split between these groups.

Funding

Funding for many of Missouri's secondary projects comes from ESEA Title I. Nevertheless, students in grades 7-9 accounted for only 16% of the total public school participation in 1973-74. High school students (grades 10-12) accounted for 3%. The 1973-74 Missouri state Title I report notes that:

> The concentration of Title I activities in the various grades is heaviest in grades 3 and 4, the general concentration being in grades 2 through 6. This is an adequate approach to offering special servies to those students who may not always be the most in need but certainly in a stage of their education span where additional efforts will do the most good. Reduced instruction is taking place in high school.[14]

As shown in Table 4, this orientation has caused pre-K-6 participation to increase 17% during the five school years indicated, while participation by students in grades 7-9 and in 10-12 has decreased 7% and 8% respectively.

Table 4

MISSOURI TITLE I PARTICIPATION, BY GRADE LEVEL: ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-74
(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	Percent Change 1970-74
Pre-K-3	33%	35%	36%	37%	41%	+8%
4-6	30	33	37	37	39	+9
7-9	23	20	19	17	16	-7
10-12	11	8	4	3	3	-8
Ungraded	4	4	3	3	1	-3
	(114,722)	(99,888)	(82,336)	(77,350)	(68,119)	(-46,603)

Note: Figures in parentheses show total public school participation in Title I. Figures in percent may not total 100% because of rounding.

Source: Missouri annual Title I reports.

In 1973, the Missouri State Legislature passed HB 474, which reorganized state special education efforts, repealed all previous legislation, and revamped state-level administration. HB 474 contributes a fixed amount for each approved special education class; however, it also provides funding for remedial reading services and in this way overlaps Title I. Currently, HB 474 pays $3500 of the salary for each teacher in a remedial reading program and covers approximately 25% of Title I reading program costs.[15] Some difficulties can arise in these projects because the purpose of each program is different. Whereas Title I's purpose is to help the poorest achievers reach grade level, regardless of individual potential, HB 474's purpose is to help students function at potential, regardless of current grade level. Some of the effects of these differences will be discussed in subsequent parts of the chapter.

Apparently the problems that have emerged over the relationship of HB 474 to Title I were not anticipated at initial authorization. The state Special Education Administration feels that the HB 474 guidelines are more valid for determining eligibility of compensatory programs than those of Title I, and state officials are hopeful that an arrangement can be worked out with the federal government to accept the state HB 474 guidelines for determining eligibility into Missouri Title I programs. They concede, however, that Missouri cannot afford to lose the $13 million funneled into the educational system through Title I.

HB 474 funding goes largely to early grades because most districts tend to start programs there, planning to extend services to higher grades over time. However, growing concern reported among state department staff about the learning problems of secondary students appears to be changing the distribution somewhat. At the secondary level, emphasis in special education is on vocational and career education, as seen in St. Louis. Project staff say that a student entering high school who has not developed basic skills should, at the least, have some help from the school in acquiring career skills that will assist him in maintaining a productive life-style.

State and District

The State Department of Education establishes the regulations for program eligibility, teacher certification, and fiscal accountability, leaving project design and implementation up to each district.

The district often has a director of federal programs or evaluation who is available to project teachers and principals and whose role may include direct and regular participation in the project in addition to districtwide administrative and fiscal duties. The district may also have a program coordinator, whose responsibilities may include selecting, assigning, and developing the staff, requesting and distributing materials, and representing the district program when necessary. Especially in districts that call for community or student program awareness and evaluation, district-level coordinators assume project/community liaison responsibilities and support interproject staff communication.

In small districts, where there is no district-level coordinator or program director, the projects are directly supervised by the school principal, who in turn is responsible to the superintendent. In larger programs such as in Springfield, Kansas City, and St. Louis (grades 7-8), although the principal maintains some degree of involvement, a coordinator at the district level, usually in language arts, is considered the immediate supervisor of the program.

Project

Missouri projects are most frequently organized on the support teacher model or the remedial class model. The activities and curriculum of the support teacher projects follow the regular English or language arts curriculum. A student may be referred by a regular program teacher for brushup exercises, or he may be a full-time remedial student who spends part of the time receiving extra help with his English or language arts work. In the latter projects, classes may include students from many different grade levels and skill levels. When such classes contain fewer than ten students, project teachers expressed no difficulty with the disparity of skill levels.

In several of the larger Missouri districts, the remedial class replaces the student's regular program English or language arts class. Here the remedial class is usually not coordinated or related to the regular school program, possibly because the students are severely deficient in reading skills and need a completely separate skills program.

St. Louis high school projects are the only alternative school designs in Missouri that our survey encountered. All Title I money at the high school level in St. Louis is concentrated in two schools (grades 9-12): Lincoln High School and a work-study school. Remedial services are delivered in distinctly different ways in these two schools. The work-study school has recently created a reading program in response to the need for job-related reading skills. On the other hand, Lincoln High School, an alternative environment for dropouts of the regular school, teaches the regular reading curriculum on a remedial level.

In most districts, the remedial reading program provides the only reading instruction for secondary students. However, in Springfield and in St. Louis a more general reading program was instituted for all secondary students.

In Springfield a developmental reading course instituted in 1973-74 is offered in the seventh and eighth grades and is required of the senior high's ninth graders. The course is offered for one semester (one quarter for senior high), alternating with music or art classes. This means that the Title I program teachers work with a different group of students each semester or quarter. The remedial teachers feel this schedule limits their own effectiveness.

In St. Louis, due to increased local board concern, a reading improvement course is required of all ninth grade students. Students are placed in one of three levels. The first level takes students who read below the sixth grade level, the second level takes students who read between the sixth and eighth grade levels, while students at or above grade level are placed in the third level.

Teachers

Special Certificates

Basic certification requirements for regular classroom teachers in Missouri depend on the structure of the school in which they teach. Teahcers in a K-8 school must have an elementary certificate; teachers in a junior or senior high program must have a secondary certificate. All secondary teachers who specialize in English or language arts are also required to have at least two credits in reading training. Missouri is one of the few states that requires any reading training for secondary teachers. A course described by state requirements and usually entitled "Problems of Teaching Reading in the Secondary School" is offered in all the state's teacher training institutions.

Missouri requires an RSC of all teachers in classes specifically called remedial reading. The RSC is awarded to teachers with either elementary or secondary credentials upon completion of the following five courses: Teaching of Reading, Methods of Remedial Reading, Analysis and Corrective Reading, Diagnosis and Individualized Intelligence Testing, and Diagnosis and Remediation. The RSC qualifies a teacher to teach reading in grades K-12. In Appendix D, Exhibit D-5 lists the course requirements for obtaining an RSC in Missouri.

Missouri has between 2,000 and 3,000 RSC teachers (approximately 2% of the state's 150,000 teachers). Districts wishing to hire an RSC teacher usually seem to have little difficulty, and several districts have introduced more selective hiring practices over the past few years. However, one administrator reported difficulty obtaining RSC teachers. In his district a temporary certificate is sometimes issued on contract, with the agreement that the teacher take the necessary classes.

In Missouri, the RSC is not required for teachers of remedial language arts classes.[16] Some districts do report using specially certificated teachers for "Remedial Language Arts" programs, but other districts with both remedial reading and remedial language arts classes, reported that only the reading teacher has the RSC. Apparently, districts offer a remedial language arts class in an attempt to provide a wider range of remedial services than is offered through remedial reading alone, not as an attempt to escape the certificate rule.

The state HB 474 administrator indicated that, with more widespread implementation of the HB 474 program, an increased demand for teachers with special education certification is emerging. In general, HB 474 is seen as a more stable source of funding than Title I, which suggests that the incentives for becoming an RSC teacher are declining. However, the HB 432 amendment will double the amount provided by the state for each remedial reading class (from $3500 to $7000), and this may help to offset the differential attractiveness to districts of hiring special education rather than RSC teachers, and to teachers choosing among specialties.

Overall, project teachers seem qualified and well-trained. Many return to college when their project is implemented to obtain special certification, usually through a master's program.

Most project administrators and teachers prefer an elementary background for remedial reading teachers, saying that elementary experience is skill-oriented rather than content- or subject-oriented and that elementary teachers are more experienced at individualizing instruction. Project teachers in two senior high schools indicated that personality traits--such as the abilities to relate to and control students, and to command mutual respect--are more important qualities in a project teacher than whether previous work was in elementary or secondary schools.

In St. Louis, at both Lincoln and the work-study high school, project teachers receive local in-service reading training but are not required to have the RSC.

Teacher Aides

Most projects do not use teacher aides. The student/teacher ratio is generally small--6 to 12 students to one teacher--and the lack of aides derives from a conscious program decision rather than from fiscal restrictions. Several project teachers who have only a few students per 50-minute period mentioned that they do not need aides. Three projects provide teacher aides to each remedial teacher on a half-time basis.

In Missouri, teacher aides must have 60 hours of unspecified college credit to meet guidelines established by HB 474. Since HB 474 and Title I projects often overlap, these requirements automatically apply to both programs. All current project aides meet this requirement, and some have bachelor's degrees with certification eligibility. Because few regular teaching jobs are available, many teachers are taking aide positions that might otherwise have been filled by parents to maximize good school/community relations. Thus, while one effect of HB 474's college credit requirement for aides has been to upgrade the quality of services provided, another effect may have been to encourage detachment of the school from community involvement. In one project, this HB 474 requirement forced the firing of aides working in Title I projects who did not have the college credits specified, even though some had nine years of experience.

In-Service Training

HB 474 guidelines require in-service training to be conducted each year.[15] Kansas City requires 12 clock hours of in-service for project teachers. At minimum, some projects use International Reading Association (IRA) meetings or other nationwide, annual reading conferences as a type of in-service. In-service training also usually includes monthly or quarterly meetings for project teachers, district coordinators, and occasionally project students and parents. In some cases, these meetings are project review and evaluation sessions, with opportunities to discuss problems and make suggestions to district administrators. In other cases, these meetings provide opportunities to hear guest speakers, review new materials or tests, and discuss individual case problems.

One district voiced complaints about the heavy demands on teachers' time, reporting that monthly in-service meetings during school time have become impossible to schedule, and are now being held on weekends.

Students

Identification

Because HB 474 and Title I--the principal funding sources of remedial reading projects--have different student eligibility requirements, conflict and confusion results.

All eligible students are identified for both programs by a norm-referenced test. Tests most widely used are the California Achievement

Test, the Metropolitan Achievement Test, and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Generally, districtwide fall-spring testing provides this information. For junior high programs, eighth grade spring scores are used. Usually students are not tested again until the eleventh grade.

In a school meeting Title I income criteria, students are eligible for Title I projects if their scores on the achievement test are below their current grade level by a factor of at least two months per school year. For example, a fifth grader must read at or below the 4.0 level (0.2 x 5 = 1.0 year behind), and a ninth grader must read at or below the 7.2 level (0.2 x 9 = 1.8 years behind) to qualify for Title I.

Once Title I criteria are met, all districts apply HB 474 program guidelines for further screening of students. The formula for HB 474 eligibility is:[17]

$$\frac{\text{IQ x Grade Level}}{100} = \text{Grade Level Expectancy},$$

$$\text{Grade Level Expectancy} - 5 \text{ months} = \text{HB 474 Eligibility}.$$

Thus, a fifth grader with an IQ of 80 would be eligible for HB 474 funds if he reads at or below the 3.5 level (1.5 years behind), as shown below:

$$\frac{\text{80 IQ x 5 Years}}{100} = \text{4.0 Expectancy},$$

$$\text{4.0 Expectancy} - 5 \text{ months} = \text{3.5 Grade Equivalency}.$$

Eligibility for HB 474's educable mentally retarded program requires an IQ of 78 or below. An IQ test is supposed to be administered if the student's IQ score is more than three years old.

As Table 5 shows, one potential result of applying both sets of criteria is that poor-achieving students with low IQs may be eligible for remedial work under Title I but will be eliminated from the jointly funded remedial project because they are not performing below the level

Table 5

READING ACHIEVEMENT ELIGIBILITY CUTOFFS FOR TITLE I AND HB 474 PROGRAMS
(In Grade Equivalents)

Grade	Eligibility for Title I At or Below:	Eligibility for HB 474, by IQ 80	85	90	100	110
7	5.6	5.1*	5.5*	5.8	6.5	7.2
8	6.4	5.9*	6.3*	6.8	7.5	8.3
9	7.2	6.8*	7.2	7.6	8.5	9.4
10	8.0	7.5*	8.0	8.5	9.5	10.6
11	8.8	8.3*	8.9	9.5	10.5	11.6
12	9.6	9.1*	9.7	10.3	11.5	12.8

Note: Students achieve eligibility by reading at or below the grade equivalents shown.

*Students are eligible for remedial services under Title I, but not under HB 474.

expected of them.* State officials speculated that low IQ students who do not fall within the HB 474 guidelines for compensatory instruction could be placed in an HB 474 special education class. However, no clear policy has been set regarding this issue.

Figure 7 summarizes the process for determining eligibility.

Selection and Diagnosis

Students who are identified under both Title I and HB 474 guidelines are theoretically eligible for the program. However, in many projects, only the most academically deficient of the eligible students are accepted because available funds limit the number who can be served.

Once a student is selected for the program, the teacher usually administers further diagnostic tests. The most common are the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, the Durrel, the Nelson-Denney, the Gilmore or Gray Oral, the Informal Reading Inventory, the Slossin, or some teacher-developed individualized diagnostic test. One junior high teacher in a large urban district was asked how all the testing and scheduling could be completed before school started. She explained that in her district students identified by spring testing are required to attend an institute that is held for three days before school opens to complete their IQ testing, if necessary, and other diagnostic testing. A teacher in another district said that test returns are fairly rapid, so that scheduling is not a problem. However, she also mentioned that scores often increase dramatically if students know they will be used for remedial reading placement.

At both junior and senior high schools, teachers have access to students' cumulative records, which contain grade and achievement testing information. One teacher explained that students' "personal" records are not readily available to her, since they are under the counselor's

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*In theory, some very high IQ students who are reading at grade level, but nevertheless below expectancy, would be eligible for HB 474, but they are also removed through application of the double criteria.

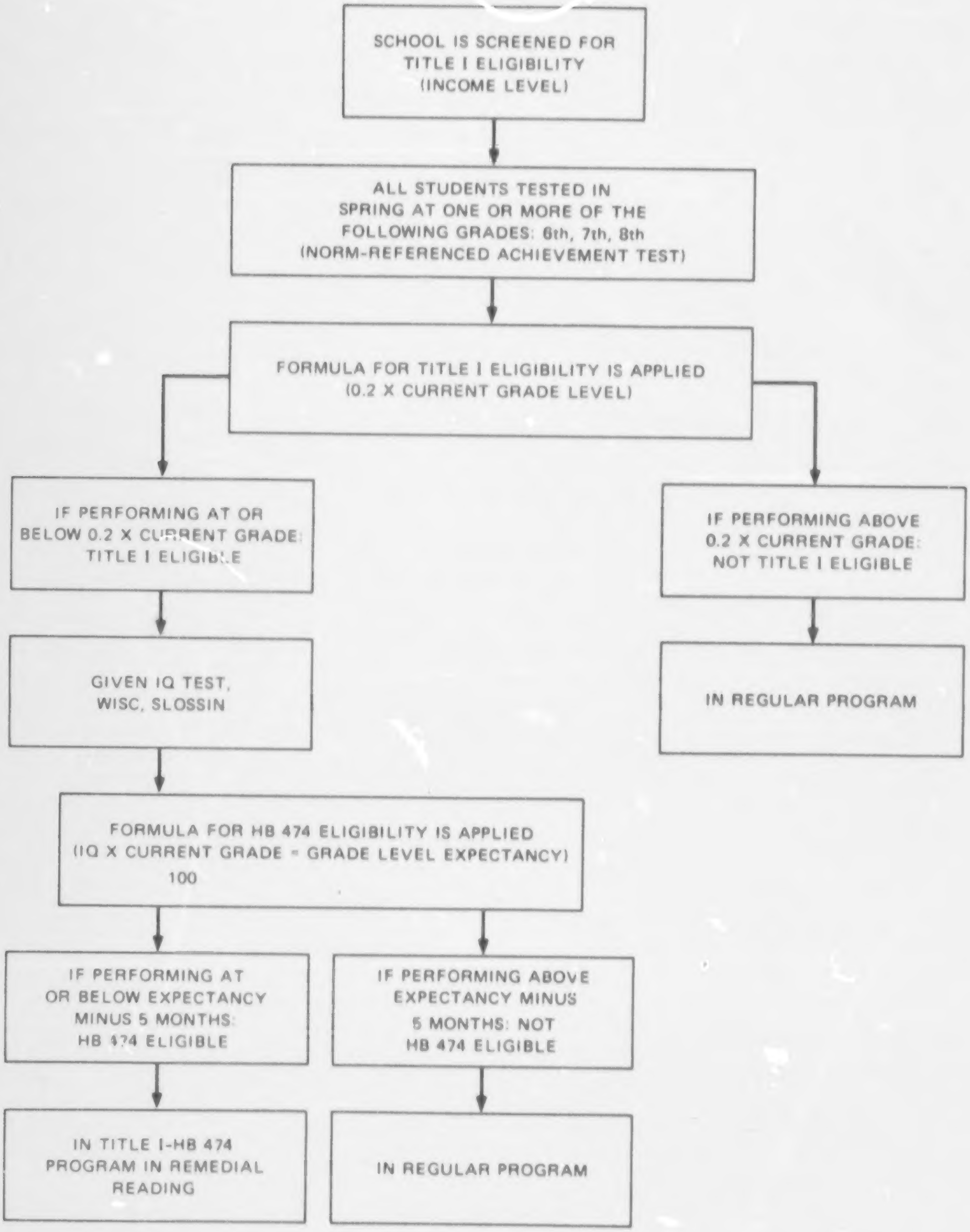
SCHOOL IS SCREENED FOR TITLE I ELIGIBILITY (INCOME LEVEL)
ALL STUDENTS TESTED IN SPRING AT ONE OR MORE OF THE FOLLOWING GRADES: 6th, 7th, 8th (NORM-REFERENCED ACHIEVEMENT TEST)
FORMULA FOR TITLE I ELIGIBILITY IS APPLIED (0.2 X CURRENT GRADE LEVEL)
IF PERFORMING AT OR BELOW 0.2 X CURRENT GRADE: TITLE I ELIGIBLE
IF PERFORMING ABOVE 0.2 X CURRENT GRADE: NOT TITLE I ELIGIBLE
GIVEN IQ TEST, WISC, SLOSSIN
IN REGULAR PROGRAM
FORMULA FOR HB 474 ELIGIBILITY IS APPLIED (IQ X CURRENT GRADE = GRADE LEVEL EXPECTANCY) 100
IF PERFORMING AT OR BELOW EXPECTANCY MINUS 5 MONTHS: HB 474 ELIGIBLE
IF PERFORMING ABOVE EXPECTANCY MINUS 5 MONTHS: NOT HB 474 ELIGIBLE
IN TITLE I-HB 474 PROGRAM IN REMEDIAL READING
IN REGULAR PROGRAM

FIGURE 7 DETERMINING ELIGIBILITY FOR SPECIAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS IN MISSOURI

jurisdiction. On the other hand, another teacher mentioned that such information is available, but she refuses to use it. Several project teachers reported using parent conferences to obtain more information about students, and one project teacher checked students' medical histories.

In St. Louis, high school students are selected for project participation through a different identification procedure than the one described above. Lincoln High School is primarily a school for delinquent students, and accepts students who cannot function in the regular school environment, of the six Title I-eligible schools. However, these feeder schools receive no Title I money. Therefore, some students are eligible for Title I but because they are not delinquents are not program participants; the districtwide reading program is expected to serve these students. The work-study high school accepts voluntary students into its vocationally based program. Approximately 220 students attend each school.

Exit

A student is usually recommended for exit by the project teacher, based on observation of the student's class work. The teacher sometimes confers with one or more other persons, possibly the student's other English/language arts teacher, the principal, the student's parents, or the student himself. If it is agreed that a student is ready to return to regular classes, testing is done to confirm teachers' observations and recommendations. More commonly a student leaves the program because another subject is scheduled at that time period through semester class changes.

Students attending a remedial class are post-tested, though not necessarily at exit time. All project students are tested at the end of the year, which means that for some students a full semester has lapsed before post-testing. Sometimes students exit who are not ready to leave. A project teacher mentioned that often a student who exits a remedial program in seventh grade is picked up again in eighth grade and again in ninth grade but that the services are neither consistent nor complete. This story was repeated frequently.

Materials

Software

Most Missouri projects use some combination of commercial, adapted commercial, and staff-created materials. Teachers agreed that most commercial materials are good, but that all need adapting and individualizing. The most widely used commercial course is the Scientific Research Associate (SRA) reading program. Others used are Field's Developmental Reading Materials, the Barnell Series, the Webster Spelling Series, the McGraw-Hill Learning 100 Cycle and Trouble Shooter dittos, Tactics in Reading, Scope Magazine, and the Kottmeyer materials from St. Louis.

Several project teachers noted that new materials are often difficult to obtain because material requests must be cleared through an elaborate administrative structure. Apparently requests from the school project must go to the district and then to the state as well, receiving approval at each level. This process encourages teachers to develop their own materials.

In Missouri, unlike other state programs we studied, materials are largely controlled at the district level. One project mentioned that the district has authority to select materials and to transfer materials among schools as it sees fit.

Of all the projects contacted in Missouri, only St. Louis' Lincoln High School uses a completely packaged curricular program. Project Plan, developed by Westinghouse Corporation, was adopted by all St. Louis secondary schools in 1974-75. Lincoln receives the same equipment and materials used in other schools. However, according to the language arts coordinator, Lincoln frequently modifies the materials and uses other appropriate materials. The coordinator said that the difference between Lincoln High and the regular program is mostly in their methods, not their materials. On the other hand, a project teacher at Lincoln implied that none of the Westinghouse materials are actively used and that materials available from the district are poor.

Hardware

Most projects do not use hardware materials extensively. Typically, however, one or more of the following are available to projects: the multimedia Ducayne, tape recorders, the McGraw-Hill Educational Development Laboratory (EDL), reading machines such as the Controlled Reader or the Craig Reader, the Audex or Taxes, and the Autotutor. Staff generally said that hardware is enjoyable and motivating for some students but that it is only one of several teaching devices and methods used.

Methods

Because classes in most Missouri projects generally have fewer than 15 students, most teachers find it relatively easy to individualize instruction. In most cases, individualizing means diagnosing individual reading levels and using a variety of available materials to plan a program for those needs. However, no projects mentioned maintaining specific planning files on each student, as might be expected in a detailed and thoroughly individualized program.

With regard to method of instruction, one high school teacher said that she tries to make her program different from that experienced by the student in the junior high remedial program, because most of her students have been in remedial programs a long time. For her it was a challenge to motivate the student, and she used any method necessary--including feeding the hungry student, playing the radio to create a relaxed atmosphere, and using comic books or other high-interest materials. This eclectic approach was apparently neither common nor very popular with the administrators.

Staff of one project reported using a contract system, saying that it is extremely effective at the secondary level. The personnel of a project in another district said their students are too immature for the contract system and therefore had switched to a token-economy, behavior-modification method.

NEBRASKA

In Nebraska, a pronounced dichotomy exists between large and small compensatory education projects. Small districts seem still to be searching for a teaching technique or principle on which to develop a program. Large districts, on the other hand, have developed complex and comprehensive remedial programs of considerable sophistication. Particularly in these larger districts, the basic compensatory program is likely to spur adoption of an expanded reading program. Nebraska officials show a special concern for the development of exemplary designs; this concern is apparent in attempts to disseminate projects from one district to another and in an inclination to expand projects within a school or district.

Another characteristic of Nebraska's compensatory projects worth noting is their tendency to depend on district in-service programs instead of college preservice training programs for reading specialist training. Apparently this pattern has developed because only one university in Nebraska offers a training program for reading specialists and because several projects require specific additional training in the techniques of their system. Project staff feel that less formal training meets their needs as well as or better than university training might.

Funding

Title I provides funding for junior high and high school projects in Nebraska. As indicated by Table 6, however, 75 percent of Title I money goes to serve students in grades K-6, while only 23 percent goes to grades 7-12. While there appears to be no state-level instruction to so concentrate Title I services, state documents imply a far greater concern for the early grades. The 1974 state Title I report, for example, included an "In-Depth Self-Study" of projects in 45 districts, none of which was in grade 7 or above. The 1974 report also indicated, however, that development of junior high and high school projects was to be an objective for the 1974-75 school year.

Table 6

NEBRASKA TITLE I PARTICIPATION, BY GRADE LEVEL:
ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-74
(IN PERCENT OF TOTAL PARTICIPATION)

Grade Level	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	% Change, 1972-74
Pre-K-6	[69%] *	[74%] *	70%	74%	75%	+5%
7-9	[29] *	[24] *	22	18	18	-4
10-12			5	7	5	0
Other	2	2	3	1	2	-1
	(44,765)	(40,912)	(42,942)	(33,168)	(32,331)	(-12,434)

Note: Figures in parentheses show total public school participation in Title I.

*During 1969-70 and 1970-71, participation was reported by "elementary" and "secondary," which caused duplication of grade level counts depending upon whether a district's elementary level was K-6 or K-8. The bracketed numbers are therefore not exactly comparable to the others.

Source: Nebraska annual Title I reports.

The scope of Nebraska's compensatory education programs will almost certainly be affected by new special education legislation, Legislative Bill 403 (LB 403), to take effect in 1976. This legislation is specifically designed to fund programs for students with learning disabilities. Most respondents apparently consider LD and Title I to be mutually exclusive categories of disabilities. However, the student identification procedures outlined for the new LD program are not likely to result in such clear-cut distinctions.

The LD program should not significantly deplete enrollment in Title I programs. However, new and tighter LB 403 guidelines will probably cut off alternative sources of funding in districts previously able to distribute some special education funds to compensatory students. This will be especially true in small, rural areas served by an educational service unit (ESU). In districts that have only recently established workable compensatory projects, the new LD program potentially could shift interest and effort from remedial to learning disability students. Finally, new demand for LD-trained teachers will leave fewer incentives for a teacher to obtain specialized training in reading.

Organization

State and District

All projects in the state are administered by Nebraska's Title I office, under the division of instructional services.

At the district level, most projects are coordinated by either a central reading service or a reading coordinator. In the two largest districts surveyed, Omaha and Lincoln, a separate Title I or federal programs office exists at the district level in addition to a central reading service.

When a district Title I office exists, the central reading service or reading coordinator deals only with individual project needs relative to in-service training materials, staffing, and other operational problems. When no district Title I office exists, the reading coordinator also assumes fiscal and evaluative responsibilities.

At the school level, all projects contacted indicated that the principal is the official site supervisor. The principal must approve major modifications in project design but generally does not deal directly with internal project needs or problems. One teacher noted that, although principal involvement is welcome, sometimes the principal prefers to remain "aloof." This frequently seemed to be the case, and effective leadership apparently is provided by district staff, or by the coordinator in large projects.

Projects in small or rural areas often have no local coordinator and are likely to be coordinated by a staff person from their ESU.

Briefly, ESUs are intermediate agencies established by the state to provide supplementary educational services to districts. Each of the 19 ESUs in Nebraska serves approximately 18 school districts. Participation in the ESU is voluntary. Districts may "buy" services, such as in-service training or psychological testing and counseling, from the ESU. Districts participate in the ESU when they are unable to provide adequate supplementary educational services, usually because of financial or geographical constraints. In compensatory projects administered by the ESU, project teachers work directly with ESU personnel, bypassing district offices. The ESU serves all project needs including staffing, in-service training, testing, materials, and of course submitting project applications and evaluation. Usually one application is presented for all projects served by an ESU.

The two ESUs contacted each serve a few small secondary-level compensatory projects. One ESU serves four secondary projects; all receive local or special education funding, or both. This is because, as with many other districts, most Title I funds support compensatory projects for grades K-6 and expansion to the secondary level is just beginning. The other ESU contacted serves three secondary projects (grades 7-8, 9, and 7-11) with less than 10% of all the Title I funds available to those districts.

Project and Classroom

Remedial reading projects in Omaha and Lincoln are significantly different from other efforts in the state for several reasons. First, some years ago the school boards in these cities committed financial and moral support to the adoption of a comprehensive reading program for remedial students. Second, considerable time and thought was spent finding and implementing a suitable program. Third, reading experts at the district level participated with other administrators and lay persons in the adoption process. In these districts, all students who are identified as having reading difficulties participate in a highly structured, packaged reading program.

Six years ago, Omaha established the Metropolitan Reading Council (MRC), whose purpose is to review new reading programs and materials. The council, composed of reading consultants, most of whom have master's degrees in reading instruction, was instrumental in locating Random House's material management system geared to specific reading skills and objectives. As a remedial program the project was so successful that one project teacher, with support from the school board and other project teachers, expanded it to a developmental program for use with students at any level of reading skill.

Similarly, in Lincoln, the district Title I administrator, the reading consultant, and staff development personnel explored various available remedial reading programs. At a summar workshop at the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis, the staff development director studied and later encouraged Lincoln to adopt the Orton-Gillingham-Stillman (OGS) system of individualized instruction.

Initially the OGS program was established exclusively as an elementary-level Title I program. However, because of its success, the school board--with an allocation of $200,000--expanded the program two years ago to serve Title I needs at all grades. The district also supports a dropout center, called the Individual Needs Learning Center, which offers basic skills, including remedial reading, and vocational education and counseling to students who are potential dropouts.

Recently Lincoln, through the efforts of their reading consultant, a former Omaha teacher, also adopted Systems I, Omaha's developmental reading program.

In Omaha and Lincoln, students are required to complete two years of English. In both districts, Systems I and remedial reading classes satisfy the requirement. In one district the remedial class is restricted to Title I students because of class size limitations, whereas in the other, the remedial class is available to all students and is often used weekly or daily to reinforce particular reading skills.

Grand Island is the only large district contacted that has not adopted a packaged program. Their remedial program serves approximately

200 students through a combination of remedial classes taught by a reading teacher and core program classes. In one Grand Island junior high, the remedial student is mainstreamed into classes taught by two regular program teachers in conjunction with the reading teacher. Wherever possible, remedial students are kept in regular classes, although a separate class taught by the reading teacher and the special education resource teacher also exists for these students. In this school the reading teacher is not paid by Title I; consequently, she can provide reading instruction to all students. It appears that in broadening the project teacher's responsibilities, the remedial program becomes a respected part of the regular school program, and gains the broad support of non-project staff.

In Grand Island's other junior high school, remedial students attend a separate reading class. To integrate reading with other academic areas, students are encouraged to bring in their work from other classes. The remedial teacher also gives materials to other teachers for students who cannot find space in the remedial class.

In the smaller districts, the ESUs appear to sponsor projects with a wide variety of organizational schemes. In one ESU all secondary projects resemble the support teacher model. In one project served by this ESU, secondary students who need remedial reading are mainstreamed into the regular class and are served by a resource teacher who comes into the class. This project depends on funding from the special education program, which provides a resource teacher to special education students; it receives no Title I funds. In this project, then, compensatory education students must be classified as mildly handicapped in order to receive special services.

In the projects served by a second ESU, the remedial programs are extensions of the English requirement. Students identified as needing remedial work take English classes specifically designed for low-ability students, replacing the student's regular English class. In one project, grades K-8, reading is offered to the whole school to reduce the stigma placed on remedial students.

Students

Identification

Usually students are identified by their scores on a norm-referenced test, such as the California or the Metropolitan Achievement Test (CAT, MAT), the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), the Iowa Test of Educational Development (ITED), the School and College Ability Test (SCAT), or the Sequential Test of Educational Progress (STEP). The test is usually administered districtwide to students at selected grade levels. Nebraska Title I practices suggest that students who score below the 50th percentile are eligible for the Title I program. An unwritten qualification noted by at least two districts is that students must also have an average IQ of at least 90.

Selection

Participants in Omaha's Title I project usually tested below the 30th percentile, and participants in Lincoln's project were described as at least four years behind grade level. Students may also be placed in the developmental reading program through the recommendation of a teacher or by their own choice.

Three district projects also administer the Gates-McGinite test to establish baseline data for measuring program gains and for further diagnosis of skill deficiencies. In Omaha's program, the staff felt that the most useful diagnostic information comes from continuous use of more than 400 diagnostic tests in the high-intensive learning center/Systems I program. In Lincoln, diagnostic information is derived primarily from the Gallistel-Ellis test and sometimes from the Gray Oral. Other diagnostic tests used are the Croft Comprehension, the Wisconsin Design Work Attack Test, the Silberoly Reading Inventory, the California Phonics Survey, and teacher-made tests.

Exit

Usually students exit the program when they have mastered specific skill objectives. This is especially true in the highly systematic and individualized programs used in the large districts. In Lincoln, 95% mastery of 11 basic skills is required. In other projects a score above the 50th percentile on a post-test, usually the Gates-McGinite, is necessary for exit. Most projects also administer the Gates-McGinite at exit for evaluation, regardless of whether or not it is the principal criterion for exit.

Teachers

Certification

In Nebraska, all teachers are certified for teaching K-12. Depending on their area of concentration, they receive special endorsement for the elementary, middle (junior high), or secondary level. No classes in teaching reading are required for the basic middle or secondary endorsement.

Currently, teachers may earn special certification in reading through a 36-hour master's degree program. Three hours of the required work deals specifically with reading at the secondary level. As with other areas of specialization, only one university (the University of Nebraska at Omaha) offers a master's degree in reading. This is because the State Board of Education contracts with universities around the state to help fund at least one program in each area of educational specialization. In Appendix D, Exhibit D-6 lists the required course work for the M.S. degree in reading. Exhibit D-7 describes these courses Most colleges cannot afford to provide more than one such special program; therefore, largely due to fiscal limitations and insufficient demand, only one institution in the state supplies specialists in reading.

Thus, as may be expected, none of the Title I projects contacted require teachers with a master's degree in reading, although in most areas the master's is preferred. No firm hiring rule is followed--even in projects in Omaha, where the master's program in reading is located. District-level reading consultants or reading services personnel usually hold master's degrees in reading, but the degree is not often required.

The only district that does require some prior, formal reading training of its project teachers is Grand Island. There the district-level reading coordinator requires that a project teacher have 9 to 12 hours of course work in special reading, at least three years of teaching experience, and, beginning this year, three hours of course work in learning disabilities. One project teacher in Grand Island who supports these preservice requirements explained that, in her opinion, a newly certificated teacher is not adequately trained or experienced to handle a special reading class.

Administrators and teachers from at least three of the projects contacted expressed dissatisfaction with Nebraska's college training programs in reading. Their complaints were addressed to both the program at the University of Nebraska at Omaha and to academic institutional programs in general. They felt that many education courses do not address the problems and situations encountered later in the classroom. A reading consultant in Lincoln said that college programs place too much emphasis on academic training (writing extensive reports and the like). He would like to see teachers better skilled at making relatively quick but sound judgments based on diagnostic test information and classroom observations. Another project teacher complained that no on-site experience (student-teacher) is required in college training programs and that exposure to available materials is insufficient. Although the program at Omaha does offer some training in both of these areas, candidate teachers work only with specially selected reading problem students who come to a clinic class at the university. The point is that a real, on-site project situation is not encountered.

Therefore, rather than just a master's degree in reading, many projects prefer a combination of experience in teaching reading, experience in teaching students at the secondary level, and specific district in-service training.

Aides

Our survey encountered the use of aides only in Omaha and Lincoln. They are used in somewhat different capacities by each district. In Lincoln the aide serves as a teacher assistant in the classroom, while in Omaha the aide is responsible for modifying materials for use in the classroom. In both districts the aide is required to take some in-service training. It was not clear, however, whether aides in Title I classes are certified and paid teachers, parent volunteers, or some combination of both.

In-Service Training

Nebraska has not set any Title I in-service requirements. Nevertheless, most projects have developed comprehensive in-service training and ongoing staff development programs because their programs require specific skills of teachers and because few specially trained teachers are available. General in-service needs for a project usually can be met through the staff development programs provided by the ESUs. Project staff also plan to use some of the in-service modules for reading diagnosis and testing being developed through statewide efforts for the special education program. Elementary and secondary aspects of reading have not been treated individually in these modules.

Lincoln and Omaha have extensive in-service training programs because of the special requirements of the reading packages they have adopted. In Lincoln, through use of a substitute-teacher budget, efforts are being made to initiate training of project teachers at least two years in advance of their actual assignment to the project. At minimum, a 45-hour workshop is required for OGS program teachers. Other workshops in math, language development, diagnostic tools and methods, and learning disability characteristics are offered. In addition, Lincoln has expanded the basic OGS approach to cover not only phonics but also perceptual motor skills, linguistics, reading, writing, and spelling.

New project teachers in Omaha receive two days of in-service training on writing objectives and using the techniques of the high-intensive learning centers. In addition, monthly in-service meetings with the district consultants are held, and summer workshops with the consultants are offered. Omaha and Lincoln staffs are also working together to expand and improve the Systems I program.

Materials

Software

In Nebraska, many districts and ESUs have media centers that regulate the assignment of software and hardware materials to projects. In Omaha and ESU No. 7, these centers also print teacher-made materials and laminate copyrighted materials. In most cases, an aide or resource teacher who works closely with project teachers runs the center.

Response to the media center concept is favorable. Administrators note that the cost of materials is usually reduced substantially, and teachers comment that well-organized centers save time and work.

Even in projects that have purchased a commercial curriculum, project teachers use a variety of commercial and teacher-made materials. Some of the packaged programs were reported to be particularly attractive because additional materials could be incorporated.

Hardware

Nebraska projects do not make extensive use of hardware, although a sufficient amount is usually available. Typically an overhead projector, listening devices, tape recorders, film strips, and controlled readers are available, but teachers contacted were not enthusiastic about their use. In most cases, they were used as motivational devices.

Methods

In projects that have adopted a packaged program, the method of instruction is dictated by the program. For instance, in Lincoln, the OGS program demands much one-to-one work with the teacher; therefore, no more than six students are assigned to one teacher at a time. The program is oriented to linguistics and phonics, introducing skills systematically and sequentially. The combination of personal attention from the teacher and step-by-step mastery of skills is considered extremely successful. Approximately 280 students at three junior highs, one senior high, and the dropout center are served by the OGS program. Start-up costs, not including materials, for an OGS system average $150 to $250 per pupil.

Omaha's program is also a skill-oriented, systematic approach to reading. However, in the high-intensive learning centers the teacher serves more students (15 to 20) at a time and acts more as a classroom manager than teacher, since students work almost independently of the teacher. The program operates in two junior highs and one senior high, serving approximately 300 students in grades 7-12 each day. Start-up costs for the high-intensive learning centers average $140 to $180 per pupil. Initially, approximately $6000 is spent on materials.

As mentioned earlier, smaller districts served by an ESU are just beginning to develop secondary-level compensatory projects. Administrators at the ESU level felt that several existing secondary projects are thought to be relatively ineffective by administrators and teachers alike. Although in one ESU teachers have initiated requests for a secondary remedial program, the ESU feels that the teachers are poorly equipped to deal with remedial work. Furthermore, administrators reported that these secondary teachers do not feel it their responsibility to teach basic skills. ESU-operated projects seem to be interested in finding a different approach to remedial reading at the secondary level.

SOUTH CAROLINA

South Carolina's efforts to provide compensatory education services to older students are affected by the state's general difficulty in determining the way in which the junior high schools are to fit into the traditional elementary/secondary structure. Recently South Carolina began establishing a system of middle schools (grades 6-8) and junior highs (grades 7-9). While these schools have adopted many of the features of secondary schools, such as different teachers for each subject, an "elementary orientation" remains among most staff and administrators.

In both middle schools and junior high schools, the existence of many project staffers with elementary experience and orientation, within a structure like that of a secondary school, seems to create some confusion as to the purpose of a basic skills project. Some project staff feel they are trying to deal with problems more properly dealt with in the early grades.

Compensatory projects in the later grades tend to rely on project designs and techniques developed for early grade efforts. The most usual designs encountered were those in which students are pulled out of regular classes for special services and those in which a special class exists for project students. The exceptions to this pattern are a few efforts in the direction of a content-area design--a more secondary-oriented approach.

A second area of ambiguity is the proper relationship of "compensatory" and "special" education. One perception of this relationship is that a student should be considered for compensatory services only if there are indications that he suffers from identifiable, specific skill deficiencies that can be remediated. Another is that a compensatory student is one whose overall difficulties with school are not as extreme as those of the special education student. In general, the apparent feeling is that the limited funding available for compensatory education should be applied to those students with the greatest potential for progress, rather than those who are furthest behind.

In the high schools, the few existing compensatory education projects, as well as the special education efforts, emphasize vocational training and dropout prevention (mainly counseling). They do not seem to incorporate basic skills into these activities.

Overall, the impression of our interviews was that special projects for teaching basic skills beyond the elementary grades are struggling under serious handicaps in South Carolina. Student discipline and low motivation were frequently discussed, but the morale and motivation of the staffs seemed little better. Projects are scarce and underfunded, achieving some stability only when a principal displayed significant and determined leadership. These problems are unlikely to be ameliorated without state-level policy changes.

Funding

The primary funding source for secondary projects is ESEA Title I. Two of the projects contacted had also been granted Title III funding. Projects with components of vocational training and counseling are often assisted by ESEA Title VIII funds.

Table 7 shows Title I participation for selected grade levels and classes. Participation in 1970-71 was 60% for pre-K-6 and 37% for 7-12. Although pre-K-6 participation had increased 3% by 1973-74, 7-12 participation had fallen 8%. During the same period, participation of special education students more than doubled, from 3% to 7%.

The greater participation of special education students is significant in respect to the relationship of Title I to the state's special education program. The latter program includes funding for LD and educable mentally handicapped (EMH) projects. These projects often bear a strong resemblance to compensatory education efforts in terms of design and methodology. There are, however, major differences in student indentification criteria. Additionally, a trend toward the use of

Table 7

SOUTH CAROLINA TITLE I PARTICIPATION, BY GRADE LEVEL: ACADEMIC YEARS 1971-75
(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level/ Class	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	Percent Change 1971-75
Pre-K-6	60%	60%	60%	63%	58.1%	-1.9%
7-9	23	22	22	19	20.2	-2.8
10-12	14	10	11	10	10.7	-3.3
Special Education	3	5	6	7	8.2	+5.2
Other	1	1	2	2	2.5	+1.5
N	(259,392)	(165,413)	(152,598)	(121,368)	(130,464)	

Note: Figures in parentheses show total regular term participants only. Figures in percent may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Source: South Carolina annual Title I reports.

special education funds for vocational training and counseling in the later grades was reported.

Even project staff frequently seemed resentful that the elementary schools had not "done it right the first time." The general feeling seems to be that, given more money, the elementary schools could and should eliminate the need for junior high programs. This perception clearly affects the morale of secondary project staffs, who see their task as both thankless and hopeless.

Organization

State administration of the Title I programs is the responsibility of the Title I coordinator in the state Special Services Section, whose function is largely related to fiscal matters. Instructional components are handled by consultants in the relevant areas (for example, the chairman of the reading department in the Special Services Section). Interviews with the district-level staff who had been referred to us by the state Title I coordinator suggested that these district personnel are principally in charge of the fiscal aspects of the district programs. To get details on program operation, we found it necessary to locate and interview an instructional manager or teacher.

The extent to which district staff are used by school projects seems to depend largely on the size and the organizational sophistication of the school's project. The district people are consulted more often in the rare school-level projects having several teachers, a substantial in-service component, and some leader other than the principal. Where the principal is actively engaged in project matters, staff has a decided advantage in attempts to secure resources for the project.

School projects with a single teacher are the general rule; they usually have little or no in-service training and little direct contact with district personnel. In one such project, a teacher said she had not received any particular training, but had made it alone thus far and could continue to do so. One district Title I administrator said that the school principal is the designated administrator of the project but often is not an active participant, a condition confirmed by the reports of most project teachers. Therefore, many administrative duties are assumed by the school-level coordinating teachers under the fairly direct guidance of district staff.

Although South Carolina secondary Title I projects have been cut back over recent years, some have survived without harming the quality of services. Almost invariably, surviving projects had unusually active leadership. In one district, Title I funding had initiated a substantial number of projects in the junior high and high schools, but four to six years ago the funding was diverted to the primary level (K-3). Following the diversion, one high school principal felt a need remained for the high school program and was able to reinstate his project by applying consistent pressure on the district.

Another Title I project, set up in 1970 at a middle school, originally consisted of a reading coordinator and three reading teachers.

In 1974, the guidelines were rewritten to eliminate the coordinator and one teacher. Two paraprofessional aides then were added to assist the remaining two teachers. The effect of this cut has been to reduce the number of students participating from 300 to 150. Although the teacher we contacted has no official leadership position, she has apparently taken over direction of the project and some quasi-administrative functions in the absence of a designated coordinator.

Most South Carolina projects are carefully set apart from the rest of the school. Few attempts are made to mainstream project students into the regular curriculum or to bring content-area teachers into the compensatory instructional process. Compensatory reading projects may be considered part of the language arts program, in which case project classes may displace courses such as English and composition, as long as project students are getting "something extra" in their language arts class. The effect seems to have been isolation of both project staff and students from the rest of the school.

There are some notable exceptions. One district with a Title I coordinator has installed two projects essentially modeled on the content-area approach. Project teachers meet informally with regular teachers to develop techniques for helping project students with the reading required throughout the curriculum. Title I teachers in both schools are working on M.Ed. degrees.

The project designed around content-area teaching is at a school, mentioned earlier, in which the program was reinstated through the efforts of the principal. Perhaps because of his strong leadership, the project staff have little contact with district staff. The reading teacher reported initial resistance to her efforts to enlist their participation of regular staff in the reading program. However, she reported some are now coming to her for assistance in providing reading instruction in their classes. An important factor in this teacher's interest in the content-area approach may be her own broad span of certification. She holds an elementary teaching certificate, secondary certificates in chemistry, home economics, and physics, and reading specialist certification.

In summary, the project design found most frequently in South Carolina was the pull-out, followed by the single class design. The rare instances of content-area design seem to be associated with projects having strong, well-defined leadership. In general, the state seems to be reducing resources for junior high and high school programs, although certain districts and schools have successfully opposed this trend. Projects seem able to acquire at least minimal financial resources if someone is willing to exert the necessary pressure. If unusually determined leadership is lacking, organizational momentum is usually not sufficient to support the projects in the face of state and district apathy.

Students

Identification

Projects in South Carolina use three processes for identifying project students: standardized tests for determining grade equivalency, diagnostic tests for determining the nature of the deficiency, and exclusionary qualifying information (also used as a selection device).

Six tests were listed as preliminary devices for screening and identification: the Stanford Achievement Test, the California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), the California Achievement Test, the Short Form Test of Academic Achievement, and the California Test of Mental Maturity. All but two projects contacted administer the tests on an October-May schedule. One exception uses an October-October schedule; the other is changing to a May-May schedule to avoid the cost of testing twice a year.

Other tests are used both for identification and for diagnosis. These include an SRA diagnostic test, the Informal Reading Inventory, a McGraw-Hill prescriptive test, the Metropolitan Readiness Test, the Gates-McGinite, and the Monroe-Sherman Diagnostic. In addition, several projects have developed their own diagnostic tests, all criterion-referenced. One project, which includes students three years below GE, uses the Monroe-Sherman because it can report a lower grade level than other tests generally recommended for high school. Many districts reported having ninth grade students four to six years below GE.

Selection

The initial criterion for student participation in South Carolina seems to be achievement at two or more years below grade level, although several projects reported a criterion of one and one half years below GE, and one set the initial criterion at three years below. All South Carolina projects reported more than enough students meeting the identification criteria to fill the classes. In practice, the bottom of the identified group is selected, subject to applicability of a variety of other exclusionary criteria.

South Carolina projects were open about additional criteria applied to exclude students from the project classes. The most common is the cumulative student record. If this record shows a pattern of absenteeism, special disciplinary problems, and the like, a student is excluded. The rationale for doing so is that only those students who would be in school, and would not be overly disruptive, could reap significant benefits from the special attention offered by the projects.

Some projects assume that students two or more years below GE will gain more from a "special education" class than from "compensatory education." This assumption leads to some complicated formulas. In one project a student who is one and one-half to two and one-half years below GE in both areas is placed in special education. A student who is deficient in only one area is placed in the corresponding compensatory class--that is, reading or math (see Figure 8).

Another project uses the student's cumulative record to find "discrepancies" (for example, a generally good record in most subject areas, with a particular problem in one subject, or general capability in an area such as reading, with a deficiency in verbal skills), as noted by teacher recommendations or diagnostic testing. Such discrepancies are taken to indicate that the student will benefit from compensatory rather than special education.

South Carolina has a law which requires districts to provide special education services. One staffer in the Office of Special Education Programs said that students who are not selected for Title 1 projects are generally placed in Learning Disabilities (LD) or Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH) classes.

The emphasis of EMH instruction is clearly on vocational training. When a student is screened out of compensatory education classes and placed in special education classes, apparently little attempt is made to bring him to grade equivalency in academic areas. This is generally the case in both junior high and high school programs.

Two projects reported that parents may remove a student from the program. Another project considers the student's request to be removed. Project staff seem eager to take on only those students who show the greatest potential and offer the fewest potential problems in terms of discipline and parental dissatisfaction.

Exit

The projects provided little information regarding exit criteria; our impression is that the criteria are rather fluid and subjective. Some project staff mentioned test scores and teacher recommendations as criteria for exiting compensatory programs. Apparently, a student remains in the program until he tests at grade equivalency and enlists some reasonable teacher confidence in his ability to perform in the regular program. The state's relatively low record of achieved gains in these grades suggests that this may not happen frequently.

Teachers

Certification

State certification requirements for elementary teachers include completion of a general reading class. No similar provision is made for the secondary certificate.

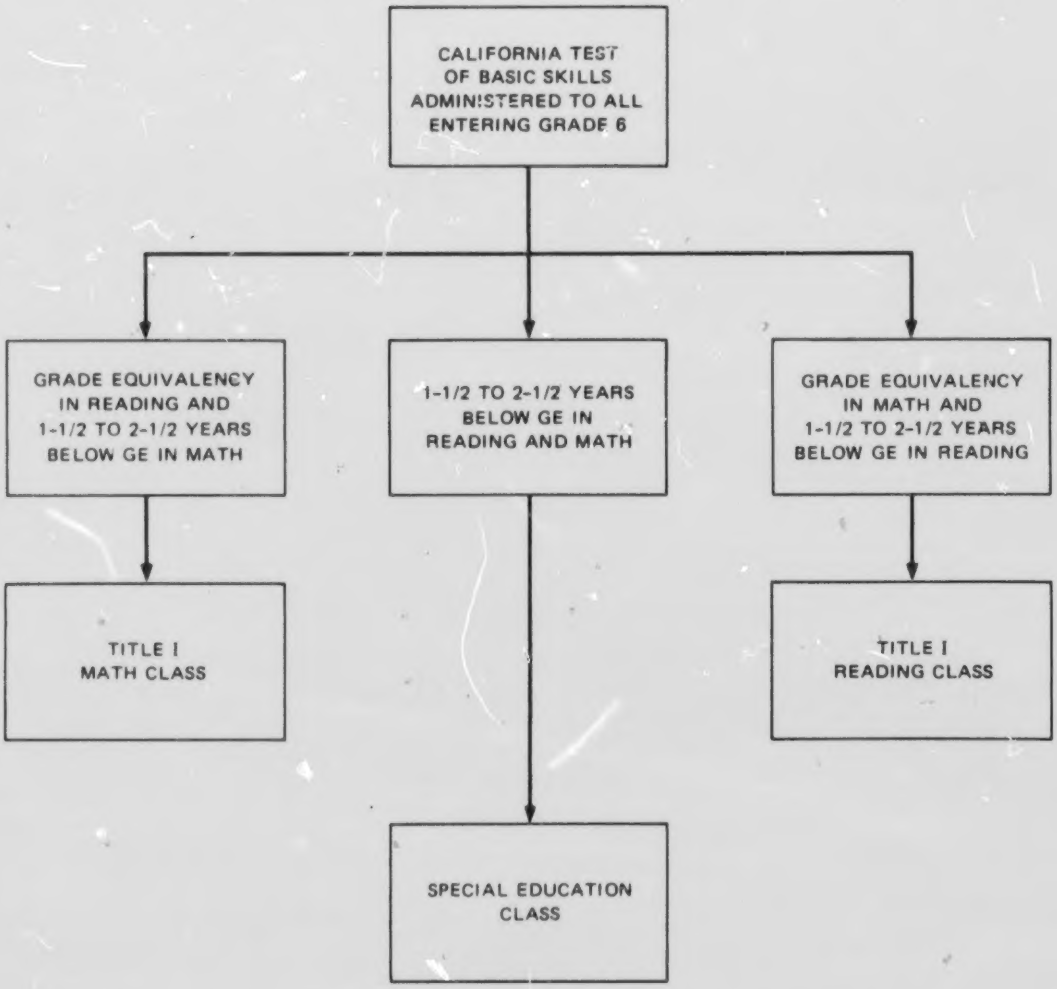
CALIFORNIA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS ADMINISTERED TO ALL ENTERING GRADE 6
GRADE EQUIVALENCY IN READING AND 1-1/2 TO 2-1/2 YEARS BELOW GE IN MATH
1-1/2 TO 2-1/2 YEARS BELOW GE IN READING AND MATH
GRADE EQUIVALENCY IN MATH AND 1-1/2 TO 2-1/2 YEARS BELOW GE IN READING
TITLE I MATH CLASS
TITLE I READING CLASS
SPECIAL EDUCATION CLASS

FIGURE 8 IDENTIFICATION AND SELECTION OF STUDENTS AT A SOUTH CAROLINA MIDDLE SCHOOL PROJECT

Four special certificates are available for reading personnel: reading teacher, reading consultant, reading coordinator or director, and reading clinician. Each requires 12 college credits divided among four areas: fundamentals of basic reading instruction, diagnosis and correction of reading difficulties, practicum in reading, and methods and materials of reading instruction. Work in these areas plus a valid teaching certificate and three years of experience qualifies a person to be certified as a reading teacher. The other three designations move up a hierarchy of graduate units, with the consultant requiring 12 graduate credits and the clinician 52 graduate credits in addition to the four basic areas mentioned. Exhibit D-8 in Appendix D lists the course requirements for South Carolina's four levels of reading specialists.

Only one staff respondent held any of the special certificates, and few project staff members had special reading training. Those few teachers who received in-service training before or during the project seemed interested in obtaining Reading Teacher Certification (RTC), but were even more concerned with obtaining the master's degree, no doubt because salary incentives are based not on acquisition of the RTC per se but rather on the amount of graduate work completed. An administrator in the state Office of Teacher Certification confirmed that an RTC means more money only in the sense that it requires graduate credits. Not having an RTC apparently creates no liabilities in terms of hiring.

One Title I coordinator, however, reported difficulty in getting qualified teachers for the project. He noted that the RTC is relatively new and few possess it. His solution was to assist in making the required course work available through a local college, which provides master's-level reading instruction for project teachers. The teachers attend summer sessions and some classes during the year in lieu of in-service training. He said this arrangement will help teachers earn master's degrees or RTCs, or both.

Experience

A current debate in South Carolina, as in other states, is whether the junior high school is more appropriately an elementary or secondary school. Many South Carolina compensatory projects contacted referred to their efforts as a "mopping-up" process for elementary program failures. Consequently, projects emphasize hiring teachers with elementary experience. A district Title I administrator said that the district policy is to hire elementary-experienced teachers as they "seem to be more concerned with the broader spectrum of a child's development." She said teachers with elementary experience are more inclined to try innovative classroom techniques, such as pupil tutoring and varied classroom arrangements. She added that the more traditional subject orientation of high school teachers is not suitable for the junior high student. One principal said that elementary-experienced teachers are preferred and readily available, so they are hired. (In contrast, interviewers in other states said that elementary teachers have a grasp of skills teaching, while secondary teachers understand adolescent development and motivation.)

State policies, however, do not seem to view junior high as an elementary level. The relatively new move in South Carolina to a junior high school and middle school system (from an eighth grade elementary and four-year high school system) seems to assume that the jumior high school is more properly a secondary level. A secondary credential in a specific field is required for teaching in junior high schools.

This dichotomy of viewpoints has become serious enough to prompt a reevaluation of state certification requirements. The state Office of Teacher Certification is currently developing a junior high/middle school credential. One state official said that the eventual certificate would probably combine elements of the secondary and elementary certificates.

Other frequently mentioned qualifications of project staff were informal--interest, motivation, patience, and the like. Overall there is little enthusiasm for remedial or basic skills efforts beyond the elementary grades, and people must be found who have enough interest in the enterprise to make positive efforts to conduct the projects.

In-Service Training

Given that few project staff have had special preservice training, in-service training could be an important variable in project success. The larger districts do conduct such training for their project teachers; the smaller districts often band together to provide it. Only one teacher said she has had no in-service training; another project indicated that new incoming teachers receive such training.

Generally, a well-qualified teacher in a multiteacher project is able to provide substantial staff development, even though this may not be called in-service training. This process is often facilitated by providing the staff with a common planning period.

Materials

Software

Projects give top priority to selecting optimal commercial materials and are less concerned with development of materials by staff. One teacher said that "there is not enough time [to do it ourselves] and plenty of Title I money [to buy ready-made materials]."

Most frequently, district personnel seem to be responsible for purchasing materials and dispensing them to school projects. In one district, a teacher said that materials are "preordered" for the project by the district. At another district, materials are kept in a central curriculum center, where teachers may come to select materials for their classes.

In a few projects, school staff are responsible for purchasing. Here the main problem was reported to be acquiring enough information about the available materials to make informed decisions. One teacher said she is so deluged by advertising for commercial materials that she buys only those that are recommended by other teachers or are demonstrated by a publisher's representative on-site.

Hardware

Both district and project personnel report that hardware is neither very available nor very useful. Two district administrators preferred to discuss the variety of hardware available in their elementary projects, saying that they have much less hardware in their junior high and high school projects. One said that hardware is feasible only where there are few discipline problems and general student ability to work independently.

A similar lack of enthusiasm was reflected by personnel at the project sites. Most commented that hardware is more of a novelty than a necessity. At least two projects felt strongly that machines can be used only under close supervision. One teacher said that her aide supervises the machine area to ensure that the machines are used correctly, which minimizes costs of repair and replacement. Such close supervision, however, defeats some of the purposes of hardware, such as freeing staff.

All projects contacted, except one, use their hardware in a lab or open space classroom. The exception is a project that offers compensatory instruction in three subjects (reading, math, and social science); in this case some equipment is located in the room of each subject-area teacher.

Methods

In general, the projects reported using "individualized instruction," but the substance of this phrase varies widely. The claim was often qualified by the statement that individualization of instruction is possible only when there is adequate student motivation. One district administrator, for example, said that some project students are "goof-offs," and thus individualized work is not effective. The term was also used to indicate that students had been placed in ability groupings with instruction oriented to the level of each group.

One project teacher described her system as a "skills" approach, rather than individualized instruction. Under this system, students are placed in groups by skill deficiencies, as determined by diagnostic testing. The classroom is divided into three areas--one aide-directed and two teacher-directed. The aide-directed area contains the hardware equipment, which the aide maintains and supervises; here, students often practice the skills being taught in the other two areas. The teacher in charge of the "word-attack" area uses information obtained from students' work on the machines to determine the work required in vocabulary, pronunciation, and phonics. The teacher in charge of the "comprehension" area uses commercial materials, newspapers, magazines, and reference materials to develop skills that range from following directions to critical thinking.

All projects have labs or "centers," with the exception of one project that provides instruction in three subject areas in conventional classroom settings.

One of the major problems mentioned by project personnel is developing motivation among project students. One high school has instituted a schoolwide program of cross-age tutoring in which project students can participate. Participation in the program seems as much a reward, however, as an instructional device.

Almost all projects contacted in South Carolina use a reward system, usually token-economy. Staff see rewards for desired student activities as an effective way of increasing motivation or "modifying behavior." Where the system is in the form of laws of the classroom, however, it becomes more clearly a disciplinary device; in such cases, projects had more difficulty pointing to direct instructional benefits from such devices.

VERMONT

Adolescent compensatory projects in Vermont could perhaps more properly be called "projects of special services" for adolescents because a great deal of activity that might elsewhere be classed as compensatory occurs under the category of special education--specifically the learning disabilities program. The projects we contacted in the state were either those funded by Title I or by the state learning disabilities program. We perceived little difference between the two in terms of project design and specific instructional methodologies.

A second characteristic of Vermont's Title I and LD programs is the unusually high level of interproject communication. One reason for so much interaction seems to be the relatively small involvement of district personnel in the instructional workings of projects. According to an informal system, which has existed for some time in the state, certain individuals who are recognized as being particularly expert in some area meet and work with staff members in other districts. Recently the State Department of Education has recognized the value of such interaction and has attempted to formalize the process into a Resource Agent Program (RAP).

Finally, projects in Vermont are affected by the ambiguity of the state department's role in local affairs. On the one hand, local control and initiative are encouraged. For example, teacher certification regulations allow "local evaluation agencies" (basically, district and school administrators) to approve their staff as eligible for a wide range of basic and special certifications. On the other hand, the state's attempts to formalize specific aspects of local control often result in cumbersome procedures antithetical to the concept of local control.

Overall, there is a sense of calm and caution about Vermont compensatory efforts, often expressed as confidence that local staff can solve whatever problems may appear. Funding difficulties are common in this state as in others, but if staff morale remains high, even this hurdle may be overcome in time.

Organization

At the state level, Title I is administered through the Office of Federal Programs in the Division of Instruction. The state Title I coordinator is responsible for the overall fiscal administration of the program. The state coordinator also supervises the activities of the Title I consultants assigned to various regions of the state. Among other duties, these consultants organize and conduct in-service training sessions in cooperation with school-level project leaders.

The LD program is administered through the Division of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services.

District-level administration of Title I and LD projects is on a much more limited scale in Vermont than in the other states studied, and is confined almost entirely to the fiscal administration of the programs. School-level leadership retains major responsibility for instructional matters (design, materials selection, staffing, etc.), and projects tend to look to each other for assistance rather than to the district. The level of interproject communication is very high. We were told by project leaders that they are aware of certain persons around the state to whom they can turn to answer questions and obtain assistance.

The state, recognizing the importance of this interdistrict activity, hoped to facilitate it through the creation of the RAP, which designates a number of individuals as resource agents and establishes formal procedures for their use. No one interviewed specifically criticized the program; however, many were puzzled about why the program was necessary, given the success of existing informal procedures.

At the project level, the principal is the officially designated project administrator. In practice, the principal is actively engaged in day-to-day project affairs only when the project is too small to have an officially designated director.

All projects, no matter how small, have a project director. The director is the most important figure in the project, particularly because of the relative noninvolvement of district staff in instructional matters. State consultants who come into the district usually deal with the director rather than the principal. The directors form the nucleus of the informal interproject communication system, and many also serve in the state Resource Agent Program.

The Vermont projects contacted are not part of any department within the school structure. Some projects however, have limited ties to the English department--usually because English is displaced in pull-out project designs. Because of a notable emphasis on clinical methods among projects, we uncovered few projects and little interest in the content-area model. A possible explanation is the strong special education influence on projects.

The organization of Title I and LD projects is strikingly similar. By far, the most prevalent classroom method is the pull-out. A group of students are usually taken out of English periodically to receive services in an instructional lab. In some cases, a special class period is set aside.

All projects have homogeneous (conventional) class arrangements with the exception of one small-school project, which serves the entire junior high student body.

Funding

The emphasis of the Vermont ESEA Title I program has undergone a shift to the elementary level in recent years (see Table 8). This shift has meant that secondary projects have found it increasingly difficult to secure and maintain their funding. On the other hand, special education efforts and funding are both growing in the state and have not been confined to the early grades. As a result, many secondary Title I projects have been converted to LD projects in an attempt to ensure their continued existence.

Table 8

VERMONT TITLE I PARTICIPATION, BY GRADE LEVEL:
ACADEMIC YEARS 1971-74
(In Percent of Total Participation)

Grade Level	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74
Pre-K-6	n.a.	[75%]*	78%	85%	[78%]*
7-12	n.a.	[24]*	21	13	[16]*
Other	n.a.	[2]*	2	2	[6]*
	(13,205)	(12,912)	(13,117)	(12,586)	(15,414)

Note: Figures in parentheses show total public school participation in Title I. Figures in percent may not total 100% because of rounding. n.a. = not available.

*Due to the method of reporting grade level participation, the numbers in brackets are estimates only.

Source: Vermont Annual Title I Reports.

Our interviews revealed that some funding was available from ESEA Title III when projects were getting off the ground several years ago. This funding was usually in the form of start-up grants, however, and has not continued. The RAP is currently conducted as a Title III project.

State officials also informed us that some projects concentrate on dropout prevention and occupational counseling; these are funded by ESEA Title VIII and state monies. Some occupational counseling projects are also funded by the special education program in the state. Our interviews, however, were confined to compensatory and LD projects that provide remedial-like services.

Students

Identification and Selection

The identification and selection procedures used by the projects contacted varied according to their auspices. While both Title I and

LD projects administer a variety of achievement tests, they apply different definitions of low achievement.

Title I projects consider any student two or more years below GE to be eligible for services. Those actually selected are normally three to four years below GE, due to projects' inability to serve all students identified as eligible.

LD projects determine eligibility on the basis of a student's "expectancy," which is determined by either of two methods. The primary method is one in which specified minimal objectives are established. The attainment of these objectives is anticipated to occur during a specified time span; any student not meeting the objectives on the expectancy line is eligible for project services. The second method uses a formula based on IQ score, achievement scores, and years in school; a state administrator said that this method is used mainly as a verification of the student's selection for the project.

There is a general lack of interest in test scores in Vermont. Since GE scores are not required of LD projects for primary identification, achievement tests are used in such projects only for verification of more subjective criteria: teacher and counselor recommendations, school records, and the like. Title I projects share many of these attitudes toward test scores. Figures 9 and 10 show the identification and selection procedures for Title I and LD projects respectively.

A major reason for reliance on subjective criteria is the emphasis of LD projects on the behavioral and emotional problems of students. As will be seen, many projects concentrate on increasing student motivation, modifying behavior, and the like.

Exit

The criteria used for determining when a student is ready to leave a project also depend somewhat on the funding source. For example, a student who achieved grade equivalency would undoubtedly be exited from a Title I project. (In fact, a student who has raised to less than two years below GE would be excluded from the following year's project.) In

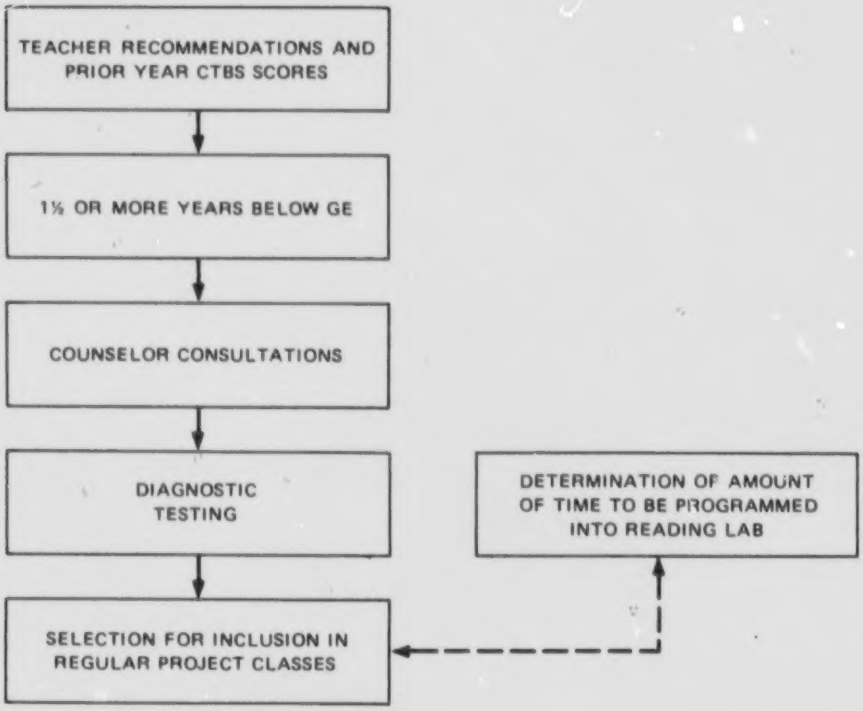
TEACHER RECOMMENDATIONS AND PRIOR YEAR CTBS SCORES
1½ OR MORE YEARS BELOW GE
COUNSELOR CONSULTATIONS
DIAGNOSTIC TESTING
SELECTION FOR INCLUSION IN REGULAR PROJECT CLASSES
DETERMINATION OF AMOUNT OF TIME TO BE PROGRAMMED INTO READING LAB

FIGURE 9 IDENTIFICATION PROCEDURE FOR STUDENT SELECTION IN A VERMONT TITLE I PROJECT

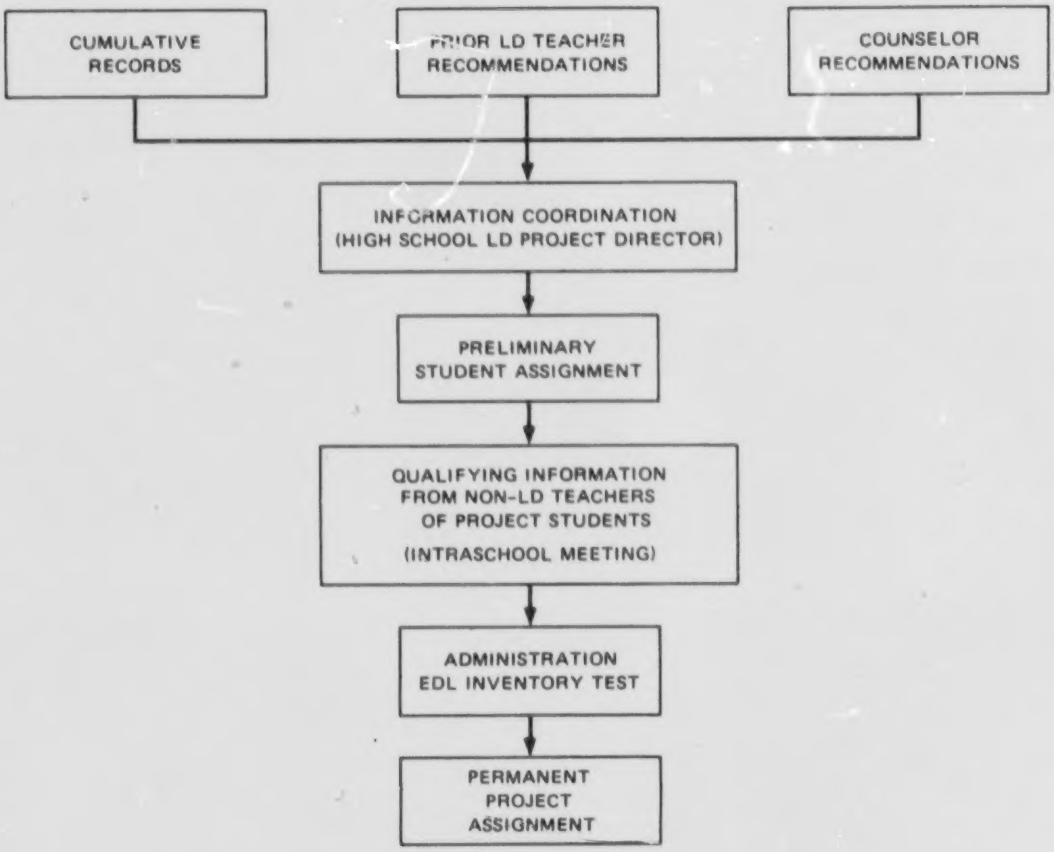
CUMULATIVE RECORDS
PRIOR LD TEACHER RECOMMENDATIONS
COUNSELOR RECOMMENDATIONS
INFORMATION COORDINATION (HIGH SCHOOL LD PROJECT DIRECTOR)
PRELIMINARY STUDENT ASSIGNMENT
QUALIFYING INFORMATION FROM NON-LD TEACHERS OF PROJECT STUDENTS (INTRASCHOOL MEETING)
ADMINISTRATION EDL INVENTORY TEST
PERMANENT PROJECT ASSIGNMENT

FIGURE 10 IDENTIFICATION PROCEDURE FOR STUDENT SELECTION IN A VERMONT LEARNING DISABILITIES PROJECT

LD projects, the expectancy measures make grade equivalency (according to national norms) even less important in determining a student's appropriate level of achievement.

LD projects are concerned with the so-called "direct manifestation of the learning disability," which apparently refers to motivational and emotional factors. Thus, an important exit criterion for LD projects is a showing of modified behavior. Such behavior is measured by whether a student has met the minimal objectives established for him or her. When these are reached, the student leaves the project.

Teachers

Certification

Vermont has a complex hierarchy of five certificates for reading personnel. In Appendix D the requirements for these five certificates are shown in Exhibit D-9. However, an official at the University of Vermont said that only about 10% of the graduating teachers are eligible for any of the certificates and less than half of those "bother to get one." This, he said, is because the districts do not require any of the special reading certificates, and they are not required of Title I teachers. This official did note a growing interest in the reading methods courses offered by the university. He felt that these two phenomena would result eventually in a revamping of the certification structure.

No course work in reading instruction is required for the basic secondary certificate, except for English teachers. The 1973 revisions to the certification regulations require English teachers to have completed work in "instruction in developmental reading and in the improvement of reading skills at the high school level"[18] (Guidelines for Adequate Preparation).

In LD projects that use the consulting teacher model, that person must have a special certificate, which requires two and one-half years of graduate-level training. Once training is completed, the candidate is evaluated by a peer-group review panel composed of working consulting teachers. The certificate is considered to be competency-based, and thus the candidate's demonstrated capabilities are critical.

Experience and Background

The differences in certificates required for Title I and for LD project staff seem to effect the background and experience that each project looks for in a teacher.

Lacking formal certification requirements, Title I projects look for persons having some prior experience in teaching reading. This usually means elementary school teachers, since secondary teachers do not have this experience. At most, some English teachers have completed basic course work in developmental reading, which is not viewed as sufficient for remedial instruction.

Learning disabilities projects prefer to hire secondary school teachers. Much of the emphasis of LD projects is on developing motivation and modifying behavior, tasks that secondary teachers are perceived as better able to do because they are experienced in working with the age group. As indicated above, LD teachers are subject to special certification requirements, so they are assumed to have the required technical expertise.

In-Service Training

Interviewees indicated that little in-service training exists for either Title I or LD projects. All teachers attend the general district-sponsored in-service sessions, which occasionally offer instruction of particular relevance to the project. The most common "in-service" is the regularly scheduled staff meetings during which teachers engage in problem solving and exchange information.

One important method of acquiring some specific in-service training is through the informal interdistrict system and the RAP. Staff may contact a person who has particular expertise in a certain area and arrange a meeting to discuss techniques that can be adopted by the project. Among the areas offered by the RAP are reading methods, psycholinguistics, individualized instruction, language disorders, cross-age tutoring, learning disabilities, and career education.

Overall, training appears to be informal and ad hoc, but not necessarily inadequate. One project director said, "[Our project] is too small to have formal in-service sessions." This attitude was less directly reflected by the statements of other project staff members. The feeling seemed to be that specific needs for such training would naturally appear during the project and could be dealt with at that time.

Materials

Software

The materials used by Title I and LD projects were almost identical. The reason is not clear, although two hypotheses were suggested by the interviews. First, the uncertainty of Title I funding has caused many Title I projects to lean toward a learning disabilities orientation, since a change in funding auspices may be necessary to save the project. Second, LD projects for older students may not substantially differ in instructional methods from Title I projects. If this is so, the same materials should serve both kinds of projects equally well.

The projects contacted generally feel that commercially produced curriculum materials can be valuable if chosen carefully. This emphasis on careful choice apparently results from the deluge of materials offered for sale. One project director, finally contacted after numerous attempts, apologized for his unavailability by explaining that he thought the interviewer was a materials representative trying to offer him a last chance on a "big deal."

Despite widespread use of commercial materials, almost all projects feel that maximum utility can be obtained only when materials are modified or developed to local needs and for local use. According to one project director, commercial materials usually provide good treatment of an area but often do not provide enough review and practice in the units. Thus, he uses commercial materials as an outline for developing his own review materials, which provide more thorough coverage.

One project teacher said that commercial materials are getting worse instead of better due to "mass production resulting from the bandwagon effect" of interest in junior high and high school reading programs. To aid teachers in selecting and modifying appropriate commercial materials, another project director is developing an annotated bibliography of those available in conjunction with the University of Vermont's Resource Center.

Hardware

Although most projects reported using hardware, from controlled readers to videotape equipment, many staff members stressed the importance of training the staff to use this equipment properly. One director said that hardware's value is proportional to the extent of the teachers' training. They must understand the built-in purposes of the program and use it for more than keeping students occupied. Another director expressed the general feeling by saying that the equipment is a "nice accessory, but can't be a full-time program."

Generally, the projects have a lab, clinic, or resource center for hardware and have staff experienced in its use. One project keeps equipment in the library. Another project, which uses a "library approach," allows the students to help select materials for use in the equipment.

One project has a videotape machine for filming class sessions, which staff said has a twofold value. First, it may be used as an instructional device, whereby students can watch themselves reading, for example, to get a different perspective on their performance. Second, it may be used as an in-service device, whereby project teachers can study the tapes of their classroom techniques in an attempt to improve them.

On the whole, hardware seems to be more important in LD projects than in Title I projects, perhaps because of what interviewees called the clinical emphasis of special education in LD projects. The definition of "clinical emphasis" is not clear, but apparently it relates to a consideration of learning problems that are somehow physiological.

An example is the notion of "minimal brain dysfunction," which is inferred from various psychological and physical tests but cannot be measured as such by any existing instruments. Where such a theory of student problems exists, there appears to be a tendency to seek "cures" through instrumentation.

Methods

The instructional methods of Title I projects and LD projects are also strikingly similar. The most prevalent instructional method discussed by project staffs was behavior modification. Important devices in the behavior modification method are the contract and the token-economy system.

One project reported using the contract system only when a student "needs it." The director said that contracts are good only for external motivation and that they are used more often near the end of the school year. The agreement usually has disciplinary provisions as well as those relating to amount of classwork to be completed. Successful completion of the contract results in what some students consider the ultimate reward--getting out of class early.

Projects reported placing high priority on the emotional adjustment of students--sometimes referred to as the "motivational aspects of learning problems." The underlying theory is that emotional preparation for more challenging work (including the next level of schooling) is as necessary as academic training.

For example, in one Title I summer project called "Head Start for Junior High," staff members help students adjust to the junior high school environment. Students are selected on the basis of cultural deprivation, poor school attitudes, potentiality for dropping out, and needs identified by former teachers. Basically, the project attempts to introduce the students to their new teachers and to provide some orientation to school life. This project views adolescent projects as important social preparation (often defined in terms of motivation, discipline, and the like) as well as academic preparation for further schooling.

The concept of team teaching was often alluded to by project leaders and was even listed as a component of many projects. The problem is that team teaching is so variously defined as to have little descriptive meaning. Our interviews indicated that, at most, it refers to a group of teachers in a large classroom who divide their time according to agreed-upon schedules. At the least, team teaching indicates that regularly scheduled planning sessions for project staff are held.

While LD and Title I projects vary in particular emphases, their methods are similar. Compensatory projects tend to display many of the attributes of LD projects. The constant threat of funding cutoffs forces Title I project staff to consider quick conversion to accommodate special education (LD) funding, if necessary. Conversely, LD projects display many characteristics common to compensatory projects, possibly because many LD staff members were once part of now-defunct Title I projects.

The differences between LD and Title I projects seem more political than pedagogical. Staffers engaged and interested in the enterprise are more concerned with student needs and the relative success of instructional methodologies than in any particular auspices. Students' needs, it is felt, do not always fit neatly into established categories.

II GENERAL DISCUSSION

PROJECT DESIGNS

One of the most immediate and lasting impressions of our staff was the enormous variability among the projects studied. We have not conducted a comparable study of elementary-level remedial (or compensatory) projects, but the literature suggests that elementary projects are far more similar in goals and means than are their secondary counterparts. However, within this diversity we found several clear patterns related to the organization of projects. We have labled these:

(1) Support Teacher
(2) Remedial Class
(3) Content-Area
(4) Reading Department
(5) Alternative Schools

The first two designs dominate Title I funded projects primarily because they are easy to audit. The next three were found primarily in programs for adolescents funded through other sources.

To facilitate the presentation of the five designs, we have organized our analysis into four sets of program components:

(1) Instructional design components
(2) Teacher related design components
(3) Administrative considerations
(4) Child outcomes

For each of these sets of components there are several specific program variables or attributes which can be used to describe the several models and to differentiate between them.

Instructional Design Components

- Referral Method: One of the most important considerations is the method by which students are selected and referred for compensatory educational services. Common ones include standardized tests, diagnostic tests, and the observations of teachers.

- Skills, subject matter emphasized: The models emphasize a variety of subject matter, including such tasks as vocabulary improvement, decoding, acquisition of special vocabularies, and recognition of logical constructions.
- Materials Used: Some models prefer regular classroom texts or supplementary tests. Oters rely on commercially developed curricula, while some teachers develop their own exercises and materials.
- Method of Instruction: Methods of instruction range from rote drilling to individualized instruction and can also include more recent technologies such as behavior modification, computer aided exercises, and peer instruction.
- Location of Special Students: Certain designs prescribe that services be received in a building or school separate from so-called normal students. In other cases, students are integrated with regular classes, albeit to varying degrees.
- Remedial Instruction as Substitute or Supplement: The paradigms discovered during the course of this study vary in terms of the relation of remedial instruction to regular classroom instruction.

Teacher Related Design Components

- Teacher Training: In some programs, little or no specialized preparation is required. Many compensatory education projects use only teachers with specialized credentials. A few place particular value on using non-specialists from the regular staff, supplementing their abilities with inservice training.
- Organizational Structure: This variable includes the relationship of compensatory education instructors with the schools' departmental structure, and to school and district administrators.
- Teacher Attitudes/Behavior: Program designs differ in the effects they ultimately have on the attitudes of teachers toward the target population. The models also differentially leave an institutionalized residue of special skills and abilities for working with adolescents who require remedial services.

Administrative Considerations

- Easy Auditing: Especially because of Title I regulations it is important to recognize the varying degrees of difficulty that auditing of these projects entail.

- Start-up Time Required: For reasons of organizational structure, inservice and preservice training needs, and physical facilities needs among others, the several project designs considered here require varying amounts of planning and pre-implementation time.

Child Outcomes

- Impact on Cognitive Skills: While the empirical documentation of project impact on cognitive skills is scarce, we have found indications of success in some programs more than in others. This component is primarily concerned with quantitative and verbal skills.
- Impact on Noncognitive Orientations: These types of impacts are even more difficult to document than are the cognitive variety, for there are few if any valid and reliable measures available. The impacts of interest here include attitudes, values, and motivations.

This framework is the basis of the following more detailed descriptions of each project design.

Support Teacher Design

The compensatory education programs which we designate "support teacher" programs are commonly found in rural school districts. Although students are sometimes identified according to their performances on achievement test, they are more often entered in the remedial program through teacher recommendations. The English or language arts teacher will identify the students who need special help, and frequently will also indicate the particular skills which need extra work. Thus the subject matter of remediation in this model is often such skills as phonics, decoding, vocabulary or word recognition.

The actual remediation is provided by a "support teacher." This is usually a specialist with an extra credential and/or previous clinical experience, who has been newly hired by the school or district for this purpose only. The specialist will visit classes or schools in turn, working with those students whom the regular teachers have identified.

The location of treatment may be a section of the regular class (e.g., the side or back) or a separate room. If remediation occurs in

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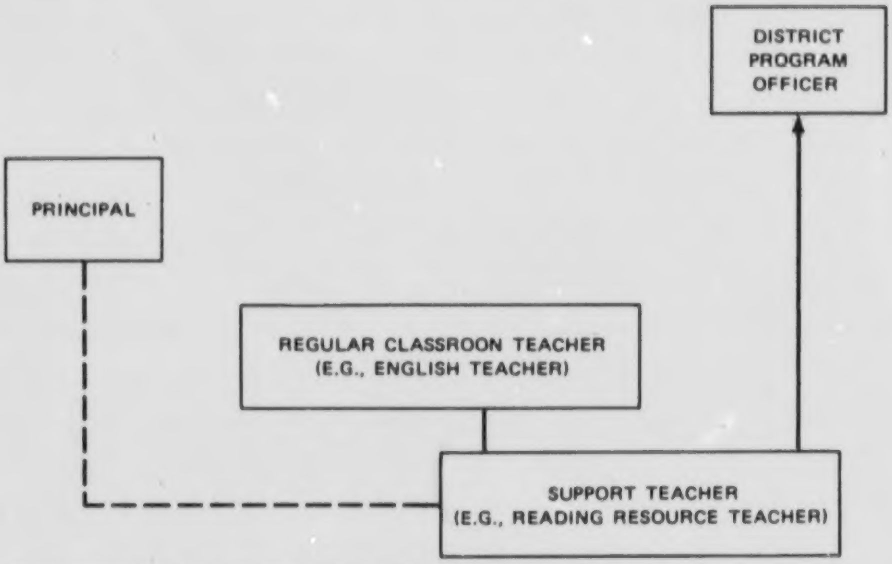
a separate room, the room may be especially designed for that purpose. A "reading lab" with special materials or equipment is often used, for example. Teachers rely on texts and exercises which teach or reinforce the particular skills which the regular teacher has identified as requiring special attention. Typically no separate period is scheduled for the remedial work; instead it replaces some portion of another regularly scheduled class which the student attends when the specialist is not there.

As Figure 11 indicates, the organizational structure of this design is relatively simple. The support teacher typically reports directly to a district administrator. Although the support teacher theoretically also has formal ties to other school personnel, in effect, she/he bypasses both the school department head and the principal and therefore does not form an organizational tie with other teachers in the project schools.

This pattern offers some obvious advantages to the small district. At least minimum services can be provided for all of the schools within a relatively limited budget; in the best circumstances help can be provided quickly and focused on problems which are clearly related to the student's regular class activities. And, at least in principle, the flexible schedule of the specialist can provide time for working and talking with other teachers about the problems and progress of students.

Although the specialist might have time to work with regular teachers, this seemed not often to happen. Sometimes there appeared to be friction between the English teachers and the specialist. The former felt that their pedagogical territory was being infringed on; the specialists were sometimes unhappy with the regular teachers' diagnosis but, having no organizational ties within the school, had no allies in any dispute. Principals were reported to side rather consistently with the regular staff, whom he had hired and with whom he had to work every day.

Primarily because of these several teacher-related design components, the support teacher model does not promote cooperation and continuity in the provision of remediation. While directly affecting students, the paradigm changes nothing about either the school or the existing staff of teachers, so as to allow them to deal more productively with basic


DISTRICT PROGRAM OFFICER
PRINCIPAL
REGULAR CLASSROON TEACHER (E.G., ENGLISH TEACHER)
SUPPORT TEACHER (E.G., READING RESOURCE TEACHER)

NOTE: Dotted line indicates an ineffective line of authority.

FIGURE 11 ORGANIZATION OF A SUPPORT TEACHER PROJECT DESIGN

skills problems. Thus when a project is discontinued, it leaves little behind.

At the same time, the hierarchial and reporting linkages explicit in this model contribute to the relatively low status of the support teacher in the social structure of the school. Since the English teacher identifies both the students and the problems, the specialist may become a sort of highly trained classroom aide with little discretion or initiative. This can substantially reduce the ability of the support teacher to make fundamental changes in a student's overall skill levels, or to solve problems that require more than a quick bandaid.

It is impossible to determine just how successful the support teacher model has been in the realm of cognitive outcomes. We do know that this model is commonly found in Title I, and the Title I reports of cognitive gains have been high (at least on a single year basis). To that extent we can surmise that the support teacher design is relatively successful despite its drawbacks.

The non-cognitive aspects of student outcomes are speculative. The support teacher model presents a potential problem for remedial students insofar as their separation from regular students is apparent to everyone.

Remedial Class Design

One of the most popular project paradigms is that which we call the "remedial class" model. Instead of delivering remedial instruction in regular English and mathematics classes, compensatory education is provided in special remedial classes. A separate time is scheduled for remedial classes and separate teachers are provided.

Students are commonly identified for participation on the basis of their scores on a standardized test administered to all students. Once identified, additional "diagnostic" tests are often used in order to locate the specific skills which need special work. The skills which these tests focus on are usually decoding, phonics and the like, but may also include comprehension and speed. Since the remedial class model provides both more time and more continuity, materials are less likely to to be a patchwork of exercises. Commercial curricula are often adopted, supplemented by teacher-made or teacher-modified readings.

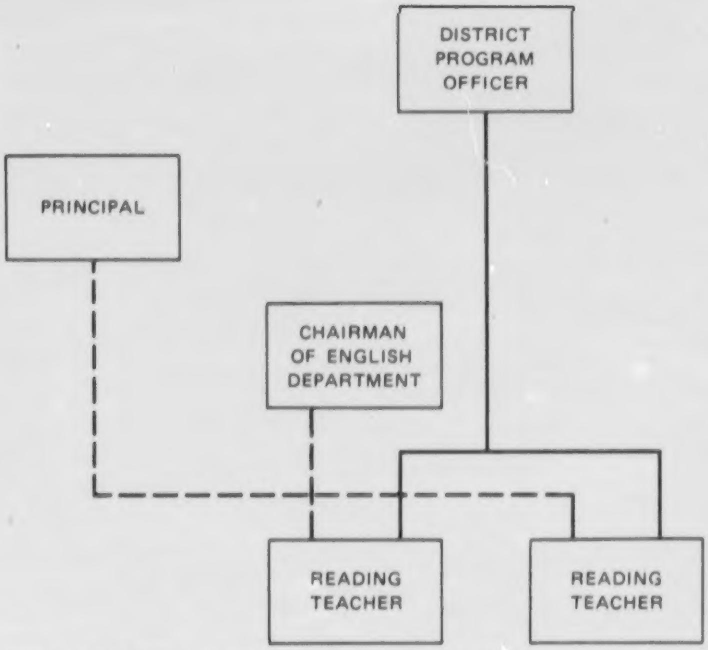
Because additional periods of instruction are required by this model, scheduling difficulties often arise. Often, remedial classes are squeezed into the very small cracks in a student's schedule. If classified as a nonelective subject for participants, remedial teachers have to enter into long and difficult negotiations with other departments for time and space. If scheduled as an elective, the task is even greater, since it cannot be required of students and has to compete with sports and art for the student's attention. Depending upon what kind of a schedule the particular school is on, students may have to rearrange classes two, three or even four times a school year. Thus the potentially greater continuity of the remedial class design is not always realized.

The staff of remedial classes usually consists of one or more teachers who have taken some special training and who may or may not have a special certification. Occasionally, a remedial class teacher is "converted" from the school's English department, but usually remedial teachers are newly hired and come from elementary school experiences.

The organizational structure of the remedial class model is more complex than the teacher support design. In theory the remedial teacher reports to the school principal, who has legal responsiblity for project administration. In practice, however, teachers seem to report directly to their district program officers and do not have formal organizational ties to either their regular teacher peers or their principal. Figure 12 illustrates the organization of this design.

Because remedial teachers work only in a single school, the remedial class model appears to offer more organizational support and a stronger orientation for the staff than does the support teacher model. When three or more teachers are assigned to the same school, they seem to develop at least an informal leadership structure, which sometimes looked like a mini-department. Thus, remedial teachers in this model are less isolated, and frequently they have other teachers with whom they can compare notes. In a few cases all the remedial teachers have a common free hour which is used for planning, in-service training, or mutual assistance. In this way, they can coordinate their efforts and provide students with potentially greater continuity than the support teacher design permits. And because projects are not literally living on borrowed time, more substantial problems can be approached, and more sophisticated remediation techniques can be used.

Remedial teachers reported little professional contact with the other teachers in the school. This lack of contact between specialists and regular teachers tends to offset somewhat the continuity that the "remedial class" model might provide. Even more unfortunate, the lack of communication inhibits changes in the skills or attitudes of the regular staff. They fail to benefit from exposure to specialists who can teach them to deal with students who have special needs. Indeed, project staff often reported that other teachers in the school seemed relieved that since there was someone else to whom the problem



NOTE: Doted lines indicate ineffective lines of authority.

FIGURE 12 ORGANIZATION OF A REMEDIAL TEACHER PROJECT DESIGN

"belonged," they could now relieve themselves of any responsiblity for coping with it.

A second common difficulty for remedial projects is their lack of relevance to the remainder of the curriculum. In theory, improved basic skills should transfer naturally and broadly to improve a student's performance of other academic tasks. In practice, however, a student must often struggle on in many classes for a long time before a general improvement in decoding or speed can be turned into a better way of coping with English, Social Studies and Biology. The particular skills that are usually stressed in projects using remedial class model are often even further removed from any direct application out of school. Reading a newspaper, taking a subway or purchasing a sandwich is not very obviously related to the exercises which are often done in remedial reading periods, and the adolescent student is quite able to recognize this.

The remedial class design is exceptionally easy to audit against supplanting and concentration of funds, and this accounts for its enormous popularity within Title I. The good reports of Title I state programs over the years suggest that, on a single year measure of reading and math skills, this design is quite effective. Yet we have serious reservations about whether it produces help that extends beyond the remedial classroom.

The structure of the model is such, however, that student stigma is less likely to result than in some other designs, principally because students do not need to get up in the middle of a regular class to attend remedial classes.

Content-Area Design

Content area projects represent an integration of remedial and regular services to the project pupils. In this model, basic skills are important not as ends in themselves but because they are needed in order to perform other activities.

Students usually are chosen for content area projects based on their scores on standardized tests, as in the previous model, but content area projects will often consider scores on more than one area of a standardized test--say both reading and social science--and will also consider teacher recommendations or student records. The subject matter emphasized here are the skills which are basic to adequate performance of school tasks. These tasks are not confined to English, but include biology, history, math, and so on. Thus the skills at stake are not so much decoding and phonics as comprehension, higher vocabulary, reference and study skills, and a category often referred to as "critical" or "logical" thinking. Materials are drawn from a wide variety of sources. The philosophy of a content area design is that help should be provided in the context of the regular class work, for example helping a student with the particular reading skills needed in a social studies assignment, or the basic math used as part of a science course. This help may be provided either by an aide who is present in the classroom, or by the regular teacher of the course who has had special training in basic skills assistance. Commercial or teacher-made materials may be used along with regular classroom texts, simplified texts on the same subjects, newspapers, magazines and paperback books.

Similarly, instruction takes place in many places. Most projects drawn on this model conduct reading classes either in addition to or as part of the regular English classes. Instruction continues, however, in other courses such as math and social studies; the teachers of these classes give project students special attention and help with the basic skills as they are required in that particular course. They also provide additional materials when necessary.

Content area projects differ substantially from the two previous models along the teacher related design components. The remedial staff, for instance, usually consists of a mixture of specialists and teachers without special pre-service training or certification. The latter are drawn from the various departments of pre-existing school staff and usually receive considerable in-service training from the specialists on the project team. They teach heterogeneous classes of project and non-project students in the subject of their specialization.

Figure 13 illustrates the organizational structure of the content area model. Most significant here is the creation of an organization of project staff that cuts across the regular departmental structure of the secondary school. Remedial teachers are members of departments, but at the same time they are responsible to their project director. This facilitates communication and cooperation between regular and project teachers and therefore contributes to increasing the continuity of the project for both staff and students. The dual loyalty of project teachers can create problems, however. For example, teachers in the non-English subjects may face conflicting demands on their time from the project director and the department head; obviously there are new skills to be learned, as well, and there is rarely any extra pay for the work involved.

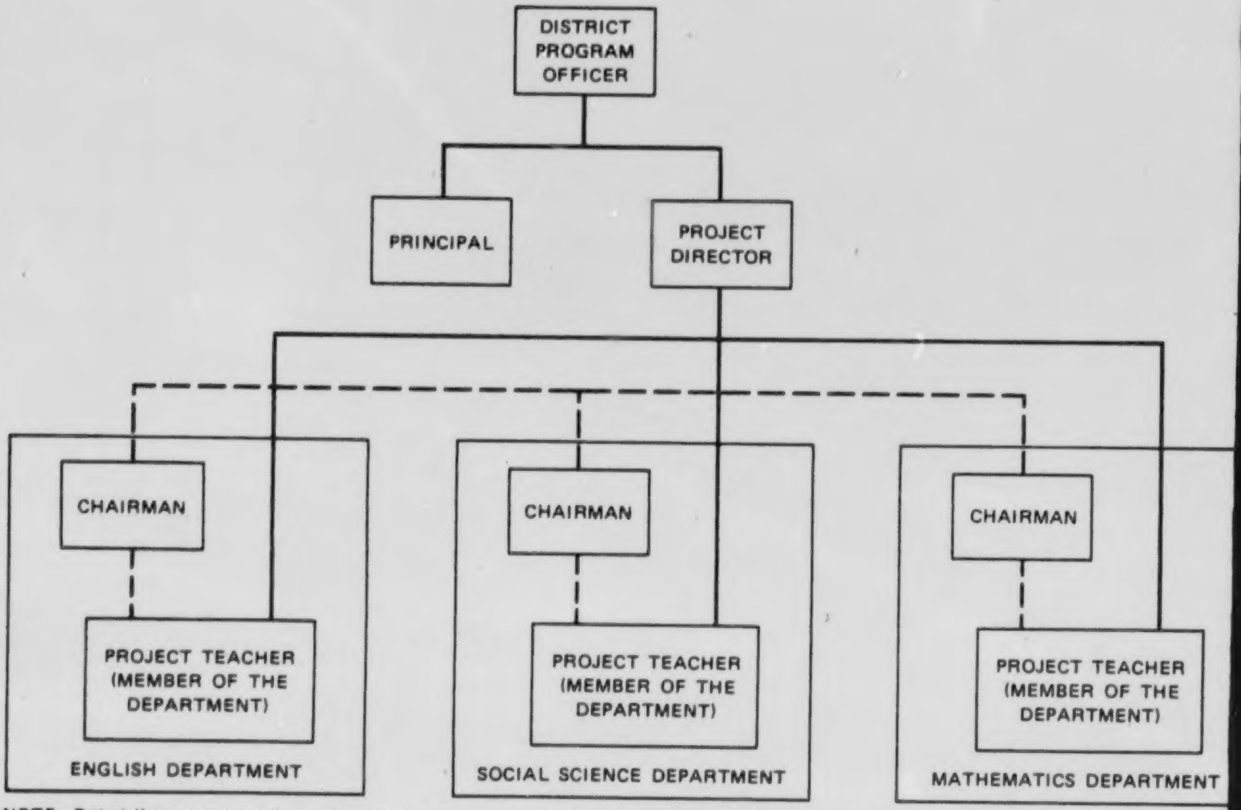
Because the project teachers are tightly organized, they have effective bargaining power in terms of school level policies and practices.

There are also some advantages to drawing project staff from among regular departments. Except for "competing demands" conflicts cited above, there is little conflict between "project interests" and "department interests." The isolation of project staff apparent in the previous models is also minimized, for most of the teachers are accustomed to meeting with each other. Regular teachers seemed to benefit in terms of a broadened understanding of compensatory education. The practices of the project teachers seemed to "rub off" on the non-project teachers and thus improved their awareness of basic skills problems in non-project classrooms.

The relative complexity of the content area model is most obvious in its administrative characteristics. The size and comparative vitality of the project staff tends to shift the administrative emphasis from district to school level, and thus strong and determined leadership is needed. This may come from the project director or from the principal, and ideally from both. We typically found school principals to be very active administrators in content area projects. These projects also take relatively longer to get started. Substantial planning and in-service training is needed before implementation can be started (and this is often difficult to sell to a school or district which feels compelled to achieve an instant solution).

The partial or complete integration of remedial services with the regular curriculum makes the construction of an audit trail a tedious and exacting task. Though not impossible, such audit trails add greatly to the administrative burden, and explain why projects of this design are far more common in state funded programs than in Title I.

The greatest source of evaluation information on this model is the California Demonstration Program which used such projects almost exclusively. This program reports high and sustained gains when such a design is used for longitudinal treatment of junior high students. Its non-cognitive aspects are less thoroughly known. It seems to offer both more teaching and greater continuity for the students. It also appears that because low achieving students were assigned to regular classes and the regular schedule, hostility to the project was greatly reduced.


DISTRICT PROGRAM OFFICER
PRINCIPAL
PROJECT DIRECTOR
CHAIRMAN
PROJECT TEACHER (MEMBER OF THE DEPARTMENT)
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
CHAIRMAN
PROJECT TEACHER (MEMBER OF THE DEPARTMENT)
SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT
CHAIRMAN
PROJECT TEACHER (MEMBER OF THE DEPARTMENT)
MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT

NOTE: Doted lines represent lines of authority in the regular school program, and are assumed to be effective.

FIGURE 13 ORGANIZATION OF A CONTENT AREA PROJECT DESIGN

Students were also said to be favorably inclined toward these projects because it was possible to see the ways in which basic skills work could actually help them in school. On the other hand, there are obviously cases in which this model can lead to more rather than less stigma; for the student who is very severely behind, a temporary total relief from the regular curriculum may be more useful and appropriate.

Reading Department Design

The most highly institutionalized remedial instruction is that of the "reading department." In this model, all students in the school take some sort of reading instruction, varying from letter recognition through "functional literacy" to speed and pleasure reading. Thus any remedial instruction received is a supplement to regular instruction and remedial students are in separate classrooms. (This arrangement of instruction over a broad range of abilities is also frequently referred to as "developmental" reading.) Typically, students are assigned to classes according to their score on a standardized achievement test supplemented by one or more diagnostic tests. Teacher recommendations play very little part in the assignment procedure. Indeed, readers at the highest levels are often allowed to choose from among two or more "specialities."

Materials and methods vary with the types and levels of reading and the use of commercial curricula, computer aided instruction and highly specialized laboratory equipment is common, as are teacher-made materials. Class size tends to decrease somewhat with the reading level of the students enrolled.

Reading is a subject completely separate from English or language arts of this model, and every student takes both. It follows that a separate staff of reading teachers is needed, and these teachers form a department separate from and equal to the other departments of the school. The staff of a reading department is often as diverse as the levels of reading they teach: several may have special certificates in reading or learning disabilities; one or more may have advanced degrees in literature; all will participate in in-service activities planned by the department head. In general, in-service activities are minimal, and there appears to be a slight preference for utilizing teachers with secondary rather than elementary school experience.

In this model, all reading teachers report to the head of the reading department, who reports in turn to the principal of the school. This arrangement is shown in Figure 14. Typically the department head will also report to a district level supervisor as well, if any categorical state or federal monies are used by the department. In general, however, ties to the district seem to be more formal than functional (the inverse of the support teacher model).

The creation and funding of a reading department often necessitates decreased funding for other activities, and this can cause considerable initial resentment by other groups in the school. This resentment can exacerbate another difficulty of the department model, namely the potential isolation of reading activities and the reading staff from the rest of the school. When reading is defined as a separate activity, the staff may tend to forget that students learn to read in order to do other things--such as improving their classroom performances or coping more effectively with the non-school society.

While there is only limited communication between the reading and other departments, intradepartmental ties are active and useful. Individual reading teachers had other specialists with whom to share their concerns and to whom they could go for assistance.

The reading department paradigm is most effective in large schools, and its administrative characteristics reflect this setting. Because of the clear separation of reading from other activities, and of remedial students from others, projects of this type are relatively easy to audit. But because of the rearrangement of priorities within the school, the principal must be a strong promoter of this strategy and a harmonizing influence within his own school to counter the occasional ill feelings of other departments mentioned above. To the extent that non-Title I funds are used, it is far less subject to the vagaries of categorical funding levels. Administrators at all levels prefer this, and staff

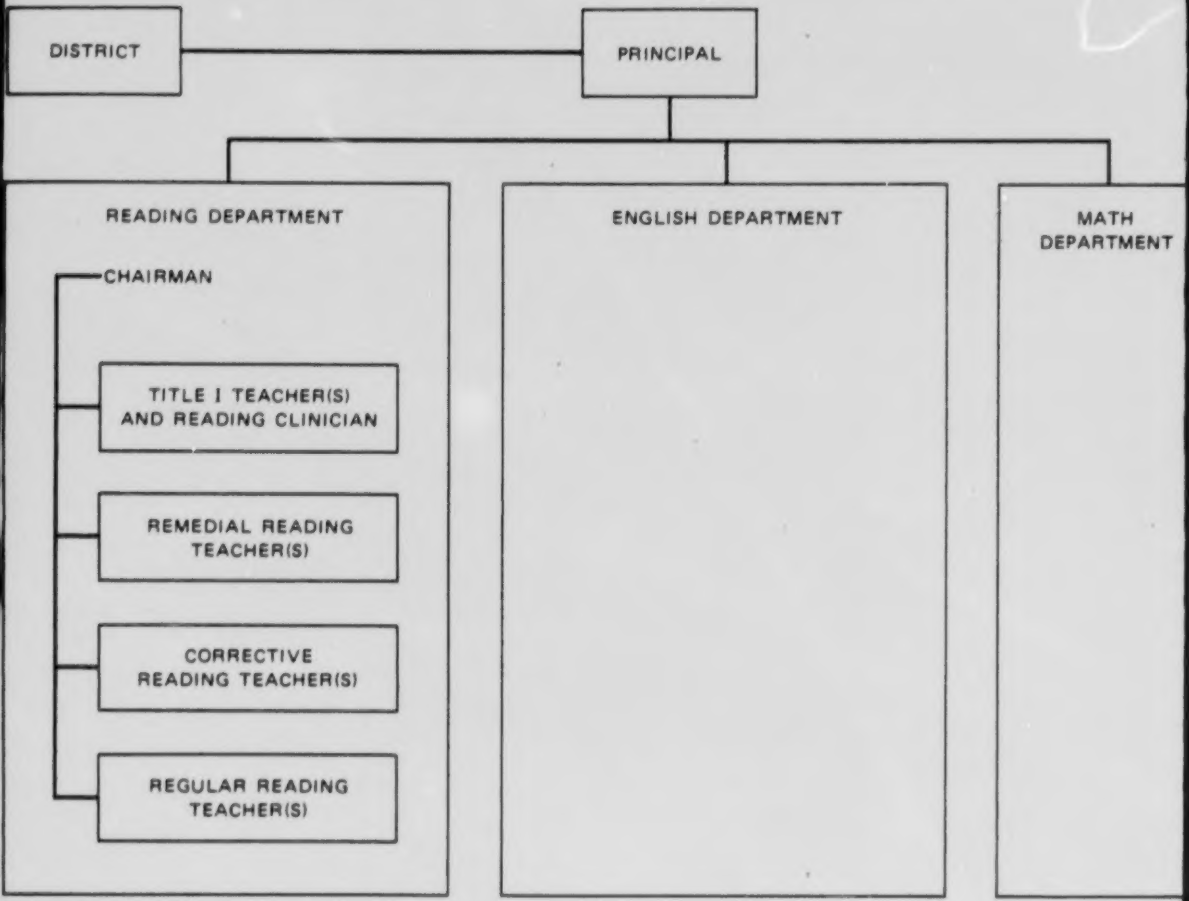

DISTRICT
PRINCIPAL
READING DEPARTMENT
CHAIRMAN
TITLE I TEACHER(S) AND READING CLINICIAN
REMEDIAL READING TEACHER(S)
CORRECTIVE READING TEACHER(S)
REGULAR READING TEACHER(S)
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
MATH DEPARTMENT

FIGURE 14 ORGANIZATION OF A READING DEPARTMENT PROJECT DESIGN

members are also in favor of the organizational stability which this model offers.

The impact of these projects on child outcomes can only be surmised. The staff of reading departments were unusually enthusiastic, and claim a wide variety of benefits for this type of model. Coverage of reading difficulties was said to be thorough, and there were no problems with "borderline students" who might slip in and out of other models as participation criteria and funding fluctuated. The format allowed for considerable continuity over years for individual students, as well as for substantial flexibility in terms of the skills that could be addressed.

On the noncognitive level as well, this mode appears potentially strong. Students at the low end of the achievement range were said to be cooperative because, since everyone took reading, only the level of the course differed and distinctions among the students were no greater than for any other subject.

Alternative School Design

The fifth model which we frequently encountered might be termed the "alternative school model." It departs substantially from the emphasis on basic academic skills which predominated in the preceding four models but is included here because, in practice, students with severe basic academic skills problems almost invariably made up the bulk of the students who attended these schools. While alternative schools do offer special assistance in basic skills, they place much greater emphasis on counseling and on vocational training and off-campus work experience than does the regular school. Their purpose is to develop a sense of responsibility among the students, an understanding of the need for certain basic skills in the work place, and an opportunity to decide between personal goals of occupational training or further schooling.

An important premise of the alternative school design is that the students enrolled there are unable to relate adequately to the traditional structure. Therefore students are placed in the alternative school based on a variety of behavioral factors such as inappropriate classroom behavior, apathy, and "potential for dropping out." In some cases, these criteria are supplemented only casually by such assessments as standardized tests. In most cases, however, students are given some measure of choice in whether they attend the regular school, the alternative school, or no school at all.

Teachers in alternative schools come from a wide variety of backgrounds, and far less importance is attached to special or even regular credentialing. "The ability to work with and understand non-typical students" was repeatedly said to be the most important teacher characteristic influencing hiring. Staff members usually are not arranged into traditional departments, and often report directly to the director (principal) of the alternative school.

Successful alternative school designs can provide a useful option for students, and their flexible arrangement can sometimes deliver both basic skills and vocational training in a form which is more palatable and more useful to low achieving students. Their danger lies in the possibility that they can become dumping grounds for any student who is difficult to deal with or a holding tank for behavioral problems. The attitude of the staffs of both the regular school and the alternative school will determine whether the alternative school is used as a way to escape change or to avoid dealing with difficult problems.

Discussion

The classification above represents the patterns we found among the approximately 50 adolescent basic skills projects we contacted during a seven state survey, and is probably a fair representation of the majority of existing projects funded by federal or state categorical monies. We hasten to add, however, that undoubtedly there are many projects which look very little like any of these designs, and some of which may be greatly superior (or inferior). Aiding the adolescent to improve his or her basic skills is still a rare and embattled activity. Projects appear quietly and often disappear quickly, and there is a sort of "underground" atmosphere surrounding them. Nevertheless, we found the state of art far more developed than we had expected, and believe that it provides a growing base of experience and wisdom upon which expanded efforts can be built.

As we noted early in this chapter, we were consistently struck with the diversity of organizations and methods used in adolescent basic skills projects. However, it must also be said that while the range is great, the distribution of projects within this reange is uneven. By far the greatest number of projects used support teacher or remedial class designs, for very practical reasons. Despite the number of other federal, state and local sources of funds which make some contribution to basic skills education for adolescents, ESEA Title I is the most conspicuous contributor, and the one with the most detailed regulations and guidelines. Support teacher and remedial class designs are relatively simple and uncontroversial from an auditing standpoint, and are rarely challenged in state and federal reviews. Because the existence of most intermediate and secondary projects is so tenuous, it behooves them to adopt low-profile, uncontroversial designs which are unlikely to attract the ire of district or state administrators. In the absence of sound comparative studies, we cannot know whether these designs have educational merits which are not immediately apparent, but we doubt that this is the case.

Exceptions to the dominance of the simpler, pull-out models, were found only where there was strong state leadership, and a degree of detachment from Title I. In California, for example, the trends in compensatory education for older students are clearly being set by schools in the California Demonstration Program, most of which have adopted some modification of the content-area design. Similarly, in Michigan the alternative schools seem to owe their existence to a favorable combination of state policy and local willingness to finance non-traditional ventures in education rather than to Title I funds.

An exception to this generalization is found in Arizona, where the willingness to experiment with more ambitious project designs seems to result from the pressure of the state mandated graduation requirements.

We also need to point out that the five models described here do not by any means exhaust the range of possible project designs. The literature describes many apparently feasible and attractive designs, such as cross-age tutoring, which our quite limited survey did not encounter. We also saw no evidence of projects in which students played a significant role in designing the project, selecting materials, or providing assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of project operations. While these activities are probably inappropriate for primary grade students, they are well within the scope of adolescents' abilities and interests. Instead, we found an almost universal acceptance of the notion that students--particularly low achieving students--are the passive and opinionless receptors of "treatments" provided by the project staffs. An exception to this attitude is the concern with "student motivation" as a crucial variable of project success. Project staff do seem to be concerned with selecting materials which students will accept as interesting, relevant and not condescending. This is not exactly formal involvement of students in project design, but at least shows some regard for what staff think student attitudes may be.

When projects are trying to maintain low profiles, it is perhaps not too surprising that they do not engage in anything very "radical." Nevertheless, one cannot help hoping that if the still young movement toward providing basic skills services to older students gains any momentum, it will be able to incorporate a wider range of imaginative changes in the traditional schooling concepts.

These observations raise a difficult policy issue. Title I is, without question, the largest potential source of support for compensatory education in basic skills at the upper grade levels. Educators who care about providing help to adolescent students naturally want their "fair share" of Title I money and participation. Yet there is the strong implication that the circumstances of Title I--its regulations, guidelines, procedures and general style--may do little to promote the sort of innovative, flexible approaches that will be needed to make genuine headway with low-achieving older students. It is not within the scope of this study to propose ways out of this potential dilemma, but if compensatory education for adolescents is to increase in importance as an educational priority, the issue must be resolved eventually.

SPECIAL ISSUES

We conducted the seven-state study not only to determine how resources are being used in remedial projects but also to discern special problems confronting such projects. Overall, we were struck by two phenomena: first, the annoyances, frustrations, and ambiguities that projects faced and, second, the ingenuity with which their staffs cope with these problems. Most practices and concepts of compensatory education are attuned to the elementary school; as a result, junior and senior high school projects find that, like Alice suddenly grown large, nothing fits at all. Most projects in the upper grades must be reconstructed piece-by-piece as new forms are found to accommodate the structure of the secondary system and the differing needs of older students.

In general, local project staffs seem to be persistent, ingenious, and remarkably successful at solving their problems. However, despite valiant efforts at accommodation (with some districts and states far more active in this respect than others), even the best-supported projects face problems that must be dealt with at the state or federal level: over- or under-regulation, conflicting incentives, inconsistent funding, and so on. Not surprisingly, these problems are not independent of each other but form stubborn tangles of financial, political, and pedagogical issues. Three of these tangles are discussed below.

Training and Planning

Our interviews indicated that intermediate- and secondary-level projects tend to use their funds in ways different from most elementary school projects and that this difference was most pronounced in what we believe to be the healthier projects.

Although we have no statistics, we believe that the healther projects direct more time and money to teacher in-service training related to the project than do either elementary school projects or less effective intermediate and secondary school projects. The healthier projects have made a virtue out of a necessity, for although an array of reading specialists has emerged (complete with philosophies, techniques, and titles) to establish a niche in the elementary schools, there has been no such rush into the junior and senior highs. In the absence of "specialists," project directors (or principals) will usually debate the comparative merits of hiring an elementary reading specialist or "converting" sympathetic secondary teachers into reading staff through in-service, special training, or both. Both solutions have their advocates, but the in-service-conversion option seems to be reinforced by a number of circumstances.

First, funding for basic skills remediation in the middle and upper grades is notoriously unpredictable. Under these circumstances, retaining a current staff member is more sensible than hiring a new teacher--and an expensive specialist at that--whose salary may have to be absorbed entirely by the local budget next year. Presumably, the "nonspecialist" can go back to teaching English or history or basketball if special funds evaporate. School districts with falling enrollments are often unable to hire additional personnel under any circumstances, choosing instead to retrain existing staff to meet new needs. In secondary districts, this factor encourages the use of secondary certificated personnel in remedial projects.[*]

Second, although most state supported universities now offer special training in the teaching of basic skills, most of the courses and curricula focus on the problems of elementary students and their teachers.

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[*] Obviously, in unified districts of those that combine elementary and junior high, this factor should favor using elementary specialists, as enrollments are falling fastest in the lowest grades. However, the state or federal funds supporting the elementary specialists may be far more stable than the state or local funds that support the overall budget, which tends to reduce the supply of elementary specialists available for secondary projects.

Although one or two courses may be offered in secondary level reading, the level of expertise on these topics is still relatively low, even for those obtaining secondary specialties. Thus a principal or project director with money to spend on personnel may perceive secondary reading specialists as a comparatively expensive and low yield investment.

Third, and most important, high levels of teacher in-service training are intrinsic to some secondary project designs. Here, in-service is used not only to train and retrain teachers but also as a device for focusing school and district attention on the project and for resolving or avoiding conflicts with the nonproject staff. The content-area model, for example, is explicitly built on the concept that most reading teachers should not be specialists but should be regular subject matter teachers, albeit with heightened sensitivity and new skills. Similarly, schools choosing the "developmental" concepts of a reading department could hardly afford to hire a dozen new reading specialists; they rely instead on the use of in-service to convert certain members of the English staff.

Our initial opinion was that in-service training was a decent but second-class substitute for hiring a reading specialist devoted to the specific problems of intermediate reading. There is little effective preservice training for reading specialists at the intermediate or secondary levels and significant improvements will be made only if adolescent basic skills achieve a position of greater prominence in state and federal policies.*

We are now inclined to believe, however, that developing a core of professional reading technicians might be a disservice to secondary remedial projects. After observing the territorial conflicts that arise from having too many specialists, we acknowledge the merit of resting responsibility with the regular classroom teacher and diffusing this responsibility throughout the school faculty.

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*In Arizona, the potentially severe consequences of not meeting competency graduation requirements has created a demand for secondary reading specialists. The state universities have responded to this demand, and the number of students completing special certification programs has increased steadily. Arizona is an exception, however, and even a well-funded program would be unlikely to exert the same pressure in other states, unless accompanied by similar accountability standards.

Another example of the special features of junior high projects is the unusual emphasis placed on planning. Obviously all projects are "planned," but, again, certain aspects of the junior high lend extra importance to formal planning before project implementation. First, project designs and material are less readily available for junior high projects than for elementary projects. This places the burden of curriculum development, and often of materials development, on the school or district staff. Second, the existing school staffs often treat junior high remedial projects with passive resistance or open hostility.* Such attitudes appear to be more readily modified if a planning phase has allowed nonproject staff to become accustomed to the idea and perhaps contribute to the design. Such a period also allows time to assess and adjust to changes in organizational structure and in the relative status of the project and the nonproject teachers.

Third, the in-service training required for many projects must be completed before the projects are begun in earnest, lest the first year's students be used as experimental subjects for teacher education. The amount of teacher in-service required will naturally vary with the project design and with the choice of certified specialists or existing teachers. Not surprisingly, projects with content-area or reading department designs often have several months or more of planning. It is less clear whether the planning phase results from the choice of a more complex design, or whether the reverse is true. In either case, the implication is that, at least for several years to come, local projects could benefit considerably from having funds specifically for use in a planning and training phase.

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*On the other hand, some teachers regard the introduction of a basic skills program with relief, since they will no longer be responsible for coping with basic skills problems. These teachers want to "send out" their poor achievers to specialists in much the same way as one would send out the laundry.

Testing

Testing students for placement in remedial projects and evaluating the impact of projects on students create another tangle of issues for junior and senior high level projects. Almost all of the projects in our study reported using norm-referenced reading tests for selecting students to participate.* This use of norm-referenced tests is generally accepted as a valid procedure by testing experts, and is a standard practice in all grades.

In five of the seven states, project personnel reported using additional tests for the diagnosis of students' specific difficulties, sometimes listing a half dozen or more tests that are used for this purpose. In general, the use of appropriate diagnostic tests for junior and senior high age students makes a great deal of sense; the more differentiated abilities of adolescents make such diagnostic testing a more sensible procedure in these grades than in the elementary grades. However, there is considerable doubt about the practical wisdom of the assortment of tests which was reported to be used for such diagnosis. Some of the tests which were reportedly used for diagnosis were norm-referenced tests ill-suited to this purpose, others were tests appropriate for 1st or 2nd grade students but of highly questionable value for adolescents, and many were substantially behind the state of the art. On few occasions, teachers who reported choosing and administering diagnostic tests could not correctly or fully identify the tests they had used.

These circumstances suggest that project personnel may have more faith in testing than they have knowledge about how and when to do it, and several teachers said they wished that in-service programs would provide more assistance in this area. The abundance and mixture of good, bad and indifferent tests also suggests the possibility that, under the aegis of obtaining diagnostic information about students, testing is used as a procedure to help establish the legitimacy of projects. Testing may help to create an air of scientific stability which is both useful and comforting when project staff receive little support from district and state agencies, but this is a dubious justification for such practices.

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*Many teachers reported, incorrectly, that the use of norm-referenced tests was required by Title I legislation for student selection. Regulations do require that within schools, the most educationally disadvantaged students be served, but does not specify what kind of test must be used.

Overly frequent use of tests is also a result of the popularity of standardized tests as instruments for project and program evaluation. In theory, districts may use any of a number of evaluation designs, but in practice, state and federal procedures direct districts toward the use of norm-referenced tests almost exclusively. A major reason for this is that normed tests can be used for inter-district or inter-state comparisons; most criterion-referenced tests, being deliberately individualized to local objectives and priorities, offer little basis for such comparative evaluation.*

The use of criterion-referenced tests for both student diagnosis and project evaluation has much to offer in the upper grades, and many states are now developing and using criterion-references tests for state-wide annual assessment (e.g., Michigan) and the evaluation of some state level categorical programs. There would appear to be much to be said for moving in this direction in Title I as well, at leats for intermediate and secondary level projects. Doing so, however, would mean developing a broadly applicable criterion-referenced test for use in the upper grades, possible similar to that used now by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Such a test could be used for selection, diagnosis, and evaluation, and thus reduce the present confusion of multiple and often inappropriate testing.

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*For the last several years, the Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation has developed several standardized models of project evaluation. One of these models allows the use of a criterion referenced test, but then proceeds to "convert" the scores into norm-referenced scores for the purposes of comparative evaluation.[19]

There are a variety of objections to such a change, however. First, many believe that the use of a nationally applicable criterion-referenced test for evaluation would lead local projects to "teach to the tests." If the tests are constructed to measure skills which educators and the public agree are essential to students, then "teaching to the test" seems like a very sensible thing to do--but fear of abuse persists. A second objection is that the development of such a test would imply, if not impose, a "national curriculum standard" in education contrary to the division of federal and state powers. The same objection could be raised about national norm-referenced tests, but rarely is.

A third objection, less frequently heard, is that a move toward criterion-referenced evaluation standards leaves unsettled the question of whether such a test would improve the present diagnostic and evaluation process. Our opinion is that the problems attending a new test would be no more difficult to deal with than are those that arise from a naive and perhaps over enthusiastic use of present tests at the intermediate and the secondary levels. At a minimum, project staff need to be provided with in-service training which includes expert and adequate training in the selection and use of tests.

Program Overlap and Conflict

Money for junior high remedial efforts is scarce, a problem that is exacerbated by the overlap of various state and federal programs in a local district. The resulting competition among programs seems to distort the use of scarce funds and sometimes confuses project administration beyond hope.

Conflict among programs appears to have two sources. The first is the choice of conflicting project designs by two programs operating within the same school or district, typically in districts that have both Title I and Right-to-Read grants. The national Right-to-Read program office professes to have no standard project design that it imposes on LEAs; rather, it simply insists on a specific 11-step planning process, during which certain stakeholder groups participate in the design process. Our impression, however, is that such planning tends to lead toward a content-area design, rather than toward the use of isolated specialists, possibly because the broad participation of regular school faculty in the planning process gives them a more favorable attitude and greater stake in the subsequent project. Title I projects, on the other hand, have a tendency to lean toward the use of special remedial classes and specially certificated personnel (perhaps as a result of having less money for planning and training). When both projects arrive in a district simultaneously, the result is an obvious territorial and status conflict, which may well be decided by the size and duration of funds rather than by the merits of the projects.

A second conflict arises from the varying administrative requirements of programs and is exemplified in the problems of identifying participant students. This conflict is easiest to see between compensatory education programs and special education (particularly LD) programs, and some background information may be useful.

Scientific journals and newspapers present debates over the reality of "learning disabilities" and a definition of this term. However, one popular theory is that some children (or perhaps many) suffer from brain damage that cannot be demonstrated medically but that nevertheless impairs their ability to carry out certain mental or physical tasks. Thus learning disabilities projects for young children frequently aim to remedy more generalized mental and physical coordination through games or exercises, believing that when the "underlying" skills have been established, dependent academic skills will improve naturally.

By contrast, remedial reading programs try to identify specific reading problems and cure them by the direct application of reading exercises, vocabulary, phonics, grammar, and so on. The philosophy is that students may have reading problems for a variety of reasons but that the cure is specific to the symptom, not the cause. As one would expect, territorial tensions between LD specialists and reading specialists are sometimes pronounced.

This would remain a project design conflict except that LD programs and compensatory education programs obviously overlap a great deal (even though, in theory, they should treat two different target groups). Part of this overlap results from student identification procedures which are necessarily quite similar. Both rely on standardized tests and take into account the degree to which a student achieves below some expected level. Additionally, however, it appears that LD projects are much more like compensatory projects in the upper grades than in the primary grades. LD treatments such as exercises to correct motor dysfunctions are rarely applied to older students. Instead, LD projects at the junior high level were concerned with improving students' reading skills using practices frequently associated with compensatory education. Consequently, local administrators want and need to use monies from both programs on the same students, although each program has a different, prescribed method of student identification. Since learning disabilities, almost by definition, cannot be diagnosed directly, they must be inferred from what can be tested. For example, specific learning disabilities are often inferred from a discrepancy between IQ scores and achievement scores for an individual student. Identification of compensatory education students ordinarily rests on a comparison of reading scores with student's age or grade placement.* When both formulas are applied simultaneously, only a portion of the total eligible populations will be identified as eligible to receive help from the combined monies.

This dilemma threatens to develop in many states that fund an increasing number of categorical programs. Defining and funding separate interest groups is complicated and unproductive. Worse, it is probably unnecessary, since we now have no way to establish that different target groups benefit from definably different project designs. At the moment, these problems usually arise from the conjunction of state level LD programs with the federal Title I program. In the future, similar problems may be encountered among federal programs.* Obviously, the most sensible policy would be one that moved toward a single, comprehensively funded program, but it is difficult to imagine this happening in the short run.

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*Title I funds are allocated to states, counties, districts and schools according to an income criterion. Once inside the school, participating students are selected on a low-achievement criterion.

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*Subsequent to the initial preparation of this manuscript, debates over the regulations of 94-140 have raised doubts over whether any formula is appropriate for identifying students with specific learning disabilities.

CONCLUSIONS

We began studying compensatory education projects for adolescent students in 1974. Since then we have conducted lengthy interviews, visited projects, and arranged small conferences for reading theoreticians, project designers and evaluators, and the teachers who staff these projects. In any nonstatistical study, observers will differ over both the events to be recorded and the way in which recorded observations are interpreted; another team repeating these case studies might find other aspects more compelling than those on which we focused. Nevertheless, we hope that the following conclusions will provide greater understanding of a portion of compensatory education that has heretofore received little description or analysis.

(1) The nonmonetary resources of materials, staff expertise, project design, and organization that are required for the operation of effective compensatory education projects in the middle and upper grades are broadly available and widely used. Additional development is needed in many areas, but work does not begin in a vacuum.

Contrary to our expectations, we did not encounter reports of lack of nonmonetary resources, nor did we find that the resources in use are primitive or haphazard. Instead, project personnel at the local level seem extremely resourceful at locating, adapting, and generating the building blocks for projects.

Materials--Almost without exception, teachers reported spending some part of their time developing materials to be used in the compensatory education project. Only in rare instances, however, did a teacher suggest that the commercially available materials were inadequate, inappropriate, or unavailable. In fact, many teachers reported too many materials on the market and had neither the time nor the inclination to assess the virtues of all of them. Instead, they reported strong preference for creating their own material, even when it would be used to supplement a commercial package. It was not unusual for project staff to complain that they did not have enough time to devote to the creation of materials; nevertheless, this appears to be an accepted and even valued part of the job, and one that they felt they did well. Developing materials seems to be a process which helps the teacher identify her/his interest and professional skills with that of the project, and reinforces professional ties among the staff members. When projects are short on money (and secondary level projects usually are), such intangible factors can play a major part in maintaining morale and effectiveness.

Staff--Most states offer special certification in the teaching of reading, and a few offer further specialization for the secondary grades. However, we did not find that all projects were staffed by such specialists or that project directors complained about the lack of specially trained and certified personnel. Hiring for projects was typically on the basis of factors such as "ability to work with adolescents," "enthusiasm," or "previous experience," and greater than average amounts of in-service training were used to provide specific pedagogical training that teachers might lack. Both directors and staff seemed satisfied with this procedure, although requests for more in-service (and for more teacher control over in-service activities) were common. It was the opinion of some of our reading consultants that the ideal in-service program would be one which was generated by the teachers themselves and which involved as much of the whole school faculty as possible. Unfortunately, present Title I enforcement practices and rules make such in-service programs nearly impossible under that program.* (Staff topics are taken up again in Findings 11 and 12 below.)

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*See Program Guide #44 Sec. 5.2. As to enforcement policies, see HEW Audit of Greewe Co. Alabama (ACN 04-10004), pp. 24-26, and Follow Up Audit (ACN 04-30153), p. 12. In the latter document, restricting in-service to Title I staff was found to remedy the previous violation arising from non-Title I staff participating in in-service training funded by Title I. See also, Arizona Audit (ACN 09-10003), pp. 78-79, and 106-109.

Design and Organization--Federal and state officials charged with the policy development and the administration of compensatory education programs know little about existing effective projects in the nonelementary grades or about the models according to which they may be constructed. The unspoken assertion is that, since they do not know about such projects or models, they must not exist.

We found this to be less true at the local level, however. Some projects had developed informal consortia for providing mutual assistance and information, as in Vermont. Other projects had been constructed ad hoc to meet the needs of the students and the structural demand of the secondary setting as in Arizona. The result of both approaches has been the development of a wide variety of project models. We did not encounter any project that had achieved a perfect solution to the issues of adolescent compensatory education, but the overall quality and diversity of projects is high enough to support considerable expansion of compensatory education activity in the nonelementary grades in the immediate future. Federal agencies could provide a substantial service by publicizing and disseminating information on the many project designs and organizations that do exist.

(2) Despite substantial obstacles, most secondary schools and their faculties seem ready to accept the legitimacy of compensatory education for adolescents and willing to undertake the enterprise when strong leadership is provided.

The secondary school (either junior high or senior high) is not a naturally congenial setting for compensatory education projects as we ordinarily visualize them. By the time students reach the secondary grades, they are "supposed" to have mastered basic skills. When students appear who have not, the secondary school faculty often feels that the elementary staff has failed. In doing so, the "legitimate" job of the secondary schools--mastery of higher subject content--has been made more difficult and time-consuming. Furthermore, secondary faculty may feel ill-prepared to undertake the teaching of basic skills. Secondary credentials require few credits in teaching, concentrating instead on the accumulation of credit in the subject to be taught. Only a fraction of a percent of secondary teachers have received formal instruction in how to understand or teach basic skills.

Finally, secondary schools are dominated by the departmental structure, which traditionally decrees that the lowest track classes in any subject will be taught by the least senior teacher in a given department. The organizational dynamics of the secondary school are based on competition and differentiation among departments. Compensatory education projects are often viewed as being in competition with departments for dollars and territory.

Despite these several problems, secondary schools and faculty recognize that many students do arrive at the upper grades with inadequate basic skills and that ignoring the problem has not made it go away. Most teachers are neither vindictive nor self-defeating, and they are not hostile to projects that seriously try to alleviate problems. The attitudes of most nonproject faculty (as reported to us by project faculty) range from apathy to relief to mild enthusiasm. The attitude seems to depend largely on two related factors: the size and stability of the project, and the degree of leadership provided by the school principal. When projects are large enough to negotiate succesfully for space and schedule concessions, they appear to be looked on as part of the status quo, rather than as ineffective intruders on the routine of the school. Support from the principal is a boon to projects using any of the models discussed earlier and is particularly influential in cross-departmental projects.

(3) Insufficient and unstable project funds, and an attitude of official disapproval, hamper the implementation, continuity, and effectiveness of compensatory education efforts in the nonelementary grades.

The optimistic comments under Findings 1 and 2 above should not be construed to imply that compensatory education and remedial efforts in the intermediate and secondary grades do not face serious problems. One state in our survey had increased the proportion of nonelementary students among its Title I participants during the four years for which we had data.

All others suffered in some degree from continuing cuts in the categorical funds available for upper grade projects and hence in the number of students who could be served. Project personnel must frequently be content with short-term solutions to students' problems and cannot plan on continuity of funds that would make more effective, long-term solutions possible. They must also spend an inordinate amount of their time simply fighting for renewal of their projects for the coming year. Some projects find it advisable to be prepared at any time to reclassify their projects (say, from compensatory education to learning disabilities) to acquire needed funding. Official documents and guidelines at the state level continue to reflect the presumption that a secondary-level project should be the rather rare exception to the rule. These circumstances take their toll on the morale of the teachers and the effectiveness of the projects.

> (4) Projects in the middle and upper grades, while sharing the goal of improving basic skills, are extremely varied in the specific objectives that they define and pursue, and sometimes encompass a broad range of these objectives.

In the lower grades, the obvious objective of compensatory education is to teach the most fundamental of reading skills (decoding) and of number skills (counting). Most projects should and do confine themselves to these straightforward objectives. The use of reading and calculation skills is confined, by and large, to small and specific portions of the school day, and, to the extent that reading skills are used in more than one portion of the day, only a small vocabulary is required. Elementary grade students have few immediate needs for basic skills beyond school, and these are sensibly ignored by compensatory education projects. Thus, the objectives of elementary school projects can be simply and briefly defined.

A different situation obtains in upper grade compensatory education projects, where objectives are quite diverse. Often such projects must deal with the same needs for decoding, counting, and so forth that mark the elementary grade projects. In addition, they must deal with the now overwhelming need for skills of comprehension. What is more, these projects must provide for the needs of the older student who faces a variety of subjects, each of which demands a different vocabulary and which frequently requires the ability to work easily within different characteristic syntaxes as well. Even beyond this, compensatory projects in the upper grades may assist students to function as literate members of the adult society, performing the many tasks outside the school that presuppose the mastery of basic reading and calculation skills.

(5) Projects for the middle and upper grades are varied in design and organization.

In earlier sections of this document, we described five models for the design and organization of secondary-level compensatory or remedial projects and discussed the combinations and variations of these models as encountered in seven states. This diversity of organization seems to result from several factors. The first is the diversity of objectives for adolescents which we discussed under Finding 4; different objectives may indicate quite different arrangements of the available resources. Second, the relative absence of "grand theory" for adolescent compensatory education seems to mean that project staffs do not confront a situation in which "everybody knows" how a project ought to be run; consequently, there has been a great deal of experimentation. Third, the institutional environment of secondary compensatory projects is more complicated than that of the elementary school. Specifically, the organization of junior and senior high schools into grades, departments, tracks, and curricula produces a social and political environment that offers many potential problems and an equal number of potential solutions. The organization of a compensatory or remedial project at any particular school seems to respond directly to the social and political infrastructure of that school, including the attitudes of the regular teaching staff and the degree of leadership provided by the principal.

The clear implication is that no single design or organization is ideal for all projects in the middle and upper grades. Some of the models do appear to be generally more desirable than others, particularly on the criteria of surviving the rigors of both staffing and funding. Clearly, however, local projects accomodate to their environments in different ways to fit their size, wealth, pedagogical sophistication, and community values.

(6) Compensatory projects in the middle and upper grades are sometimes less distinct from nonproject school activities than is the case in most elementary projects.

Remedial services for adolescents are frequently merged with instruction in other subjects, and remedial students are frequently mixed with their higher achieving counterparts. For example, the content-area project attempts to provide help in remedial basic skills throughout the curriculum in an effort to make these basic skills contribute to the student's overall progress in school. Another example of integration is the construction of mixed-ability basic skills classes. Although described earlier only as part of the reading department model, such mixing occurs frequently in other designs as well. Such classes are an attempt to reduce the isolation of the low achieving student. They also capitalize on the ability of adolescents to teach and learn from their peers. Using other students as teachers guarantees considerable individual attention to the slower members of the class.

Comprehensive projects using a reading department or other organization are another way of integrating compensatory education and its students because such projects make basic skills a legitimate part of the curriculum for all students.

Finally, there are designs that integrate basic skills remediation with other activities to make learning more meaningful to adolescents (who are now more able to evaluate the relevance of instruction than they were in elementary school). Here we find designs such as using driver's training classes to teach functional literacy. The cross-age tutoring design carries this same premise in another direction and, while it combines both low and high achievers as tutors, it also combines the learning of basic skills with adult-type role modeling and work responsibility, and even combines different age groups in the teaching and learning process.

The problems of basic skills are pervasive for the low achieving adolescent, and apparently their solutions are too. The result is that often the boundaries of compensatory projects are not obvious, particularly when compared with the familiar models of the elementary grades. We believe that excellent reasons exist for this tendency to integrate--reasons grounded in pedagogy, psychology, organization, and cognition itself. Nevertheless, those who devise and support compensatory education for older students must be prepared to deal with this issue.

> (7) In many instances, projects with more complex organizations stand a better chance of surviving and providing effective services to students than do simpler projects. This is not because of anything innately good about complexity, but because with this complexity come other project attributes that are helpful.

For example, complex organizations have more than one staff expert; as several project teachers become involved, they tend to act as public relations agents for the project with the remainder of the faculty. Beyond this, we conclude that complex designs gain something by sheer numbers. Those projects with three or more staff members seemed somehow more able to hold the project together over time and to fight for its needed resources. Morale was higher and funding more stable despite the higher total costs. This finding suggests a kind of threshold or "critical mass" in staffing below which project stability and effectiveness are threatened.*

The organizationally more complex models also seem to receive more support from the students who participate. Again, this is apparently a coincidence of complexity that arises because these designs do less to set the low achieving student apart from other students. The result is less stigma and less embarrassment to the students and less hostility to the projects.

Finally, compensatory education projects in the middle and upper grades need effective leadership. Principals are the officially designated project administrators, but they tend to remain aloof from the projects. In part, their aloofness stems from having no special expertise in teaching basic skills and from often being prevented from participating in in-service activities. In part too, their aloofness stems from their self-image as balancers and peacekeepers among the departments; they may fear that becoming too active in any special project would threaten their effectiveness in this role.

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*Similar conclusions about a critical mass of staff involvement have been reached by the Rand Corporation study of educational change agents.[19]

In some cases, principals have undertaken substantial leadership and sponsorship pf projects and apparently have not found this to be a decisive role, especially in projects using a cross-departmental model. More often, however, leadership must be provided by the project director at the school site. Developing such leadership seems far easier when the project itself has some internal structure among the staff than when there is no such structure, or perhaps only a single staff member.

> (8) With some exceptions, projects based on pull-out or support teacher models have less to offer the student and teacher than do other models, and find it more difficult to survive.

Pull-out or support teacher designs make the clearest identification of the remedial student to her or his peers. The students are reported to be embarrassed and annoyed by this and are predictably apathetic and uncooperative. Because time and space are quite literally borrowed from other classes, teachers report that it is difficult to establish continuity of treatment, and it is easy to fall into a pattern of helping with homework rather than providing any lasting improvement in basic skills.

The teacher's role is also difficult, since the pull-out approach provides no network of professional support for the remedial teacher, who must think and work through each new problem alone Beyond this, the designs create ambiguities over the respective status, roles, and responsibilities of the remedial teacher and the regular classroom teacher. The designation of a single remedial teacher also allows all other teachers in the school to disclaim responsibility for either basic skills problems or their solutions. This in turn means that few teachers recognize that they have a stake in the compensatory project and that no critical mass is reached.

Such circumstances tend to leave projects vulnerable to budgetary attacks since they have no unified professional constituency within the school. Similarly, the school principal is only rarely active in projects of pull-out design. Resource or special teachers generally build alliances with district personnel and organizations, leaving themselves without the principals as valuable allies in the fight for budget recognition.

This general finding may have a few exceptions. The first is that of very small districts. When both a district and its schools are small, the visiting resource teacher or the pull-out class may seem the only answer. Perhaps, however, this is simply another way of saying that such designs are the only feasible answer under present levels of funding and regulations about the training of teachers, use of special materials, and so on.

A second exception may be the conjunction of a resource teacher and a cross-age tutoring design. The cross-age tutoring design seems promising for districts and schools of all sizes, but especially for those at the lower end of the size spectrum. Here, the staff teachers' responsibilities consist of helping tutors to cope with the everyday problems of teaching and imply no necessary crossover with any part of the students' ordinary curriculum. In such a case, little is needed from either the principal or the other teachers in a school.

A third exception occurs when project staff have made special and successful efforts to reduce the stigma attached to being pulled out, perhaps by providing especially attractive material and activities or participation by nonremedial or enrichment students.

Pull-out designs are popular because they are widely accepted as complying with Title I rules,* make few demands on the regular school organization and can be run on absolutely minimum gadgets. On the whole, however, the disadvantages to students and teachers seem to outweigh these conveniences.

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*Title I officials strongly disagree among themselves over the legality of this and other designs, but the point to be made here is that local personnel believe the pull-out design to be legally unobjectionable.

(9) Projects for students in the middle and upper grades tend to rely heavily on standardized tests and to use a broad range of test instruments.

In some ways it is much more sensible to use standardized tests of any kind on older students than on younger students. Testing younger children has proven to be notoriously inaccurate and can only "predict" a student's later performance or assess general IQ. The intellectual capacities of older students are much more specialized simply because of their stage of cognitive development. Consequently, the information obtained from testing older students can be much more accurate and far more specific. Testing in this age range can provide useful information about what a student can or cannot do right now.

The potential merits of testing may be more theoretical than real, however. In fact, the normed tests that most teachers use for identification of students give little information about the specific strengths and weaknesses of individual students. Therefore, these tests must be supplemented by batteries of diagnostic tests that can be linked to treatments for the student. The teachers with whom we spoke seem to have an extraordinary attitude toward diagnostic tests. During our interviews, accounts of testing often began with a pro forma denouncement of the usefulness of most tests, followed immediately by a detailed description of the staff's "informed use" of several of them.

We also suspect from our conversations with teachers and evaluators that frequent testing is a function of the inexperience and hesitancy of secondary teachers in teaching basic skills. For many teachers in nonelementary projects, teaching basic skills is an entirely new task and one for which they have been poorly prepared. Insecurity makes the pseudo objectiveness of tests comforting.

Testing undoubtedly has a place in remedial and compensatory basic skills projects for adolescents, and is, in many ways, a far more sensible activity for students of this age group than for elementary students. However, many of the diagnostic and norm-based achievement tests are neither as reliable or helpful as their publicity suggests, and the remedial teacher can be caught in a continuing battle to find the "right" answer by giving one more test.

(10) One of the major issues in the design of good compensatory education projects in the junior and senior high grades is the struggle to achieve continuity.

Both research and experience are demonstrating beyond doubt that the "one shot" intervention is of little use. This is true at every grade but more so in the middle and upper grades where students may be quite far behind their peers. Nevertheless, many local projects find it extremely difficult to provide assistance that has continuity over more than one year, and many cannot even manage continuity through a given school year. We think there are several reasons for this.

First, funding is extremely unpredictable for projects in the non-elementary grades. With a decreasing proportion of Title I funds being spent in these grades each year, local projects live with the prospect of imminent demise. Under such circumstances, it is prudent to design projects within the financial and conceptual limits of a one-year treatment. Therefore, projects are driven toward short-term "propping up" rather than the thorough reform of basic skills which would need longer periods of time.

Second, longitudinal continuity is hampered by the inability of marginally funded projects to treat the same students year after year. Projects are instructed each year to "pick up the bottom," which means that those "at the top" must be moved out of the project, whether or not they are performing at grade level or have had a chance to stabilize past gains.* A project with only enough money to serve a few students in any school will never be able to stabilize the gains of those students who do derive immediate benefit from the first year of participation.

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*Recent changes to Title I regulations no longer insist on this strategy, but little practical change can be expected among marginally funded projects.

Perhaps more to the point, compensatory or remedial projects are usually designed to fit a given grade level, and successive cohorts of students move through the project for one school year each. This design reflects an anachronistic but powerful philosophy of delivering "first aid" rather than continuing assistance.

A third impetus toward single-year treatment is the present evaluation methods and criteria. Studies suggest that the students who make the most dramatic gains also make the most dramatic losses during the summer.[20] Since neither state nor federal evaluation mandates longitudinal evaluation of participating students, the project concerned for its own survival will attempt to show the highest possible gains by taking a new group of participants each year. This makes the short-term record better but in the long run does next to nothing for either the students or the school system.

Fourth, many compensatory projects at the secondary level must appear in the curriculum as electives, which replace a study hall or some other "unimportant" subject. Consequently, each time class schedules are changed, those students who do not have an elective at the period the project class is run are out of the project. In many schools, student schedules are changed as often as four times a year. Under such circumstances, projects can provide little help.

Some, but not all, of these difficulties are alleviated by the adoption of content-area designs. Remedial help, integrated into the student's regular curriculum, is not dependent on properly tied elective classes. Another advantage of the content-area design seems to be the continuity of staffing it provides. Because teachers continue to teach their regular subjects whether or not the special projects have been funded, they remain at the school during fallow periods can can continue to help students in the interim. None of the designs intrinsically solve the problems of interyear continuity, although all could be applied to multiyear schemes. California's AB 938 projects are a good example of the longitudinal application of a content-area design. Content-area designs are not easily come by, however. Initially, they require substantial amounts of money for training and planning, and they make serious demands on school and project management.

In the long run, problems of continuity can be solved only when these projects for junior and senior high levels are freed from their ugly stepchild status in compensatory education and provided with adequate, stable funds and appropriate regulation.

(11) Staff for junior high school projects need not be reading specialists with substantial and specific preservice training or special certificates.

Many of the projects for junior high grades do use specially trained reading experts. However, while reading specialists for the primary grades abound, there are very few professionals trained to deal specifically with basic skills deficiencies in the middle and upper grades. Most projects either hire specialists with elementary training to work with secondary students or retrain existing staff in English and often in other departments to staff the projects.

The staff for smaller projects, often with pull-out designs, are more likely to be drawn from among applicants with special training in elementary grade reading. Obviously, this specialist will be viewed by other faculty as something of an odd bird, but this is a reflection on organization building, not the teaching skills that are used per se. Remedial class designs prefer to hire reading specialists with secondary certificates, when they can be found.

A very common method of obtaining staff, however, is through retraining or in-service given to teachers who are already members of the school faculty. This method is almost always the principal staffing technique for content-area, reading department, and alternative school designs. We found every evidence that regular secondary faculty, whether English teachers or teachers of other subjects, were able to make effective teachers of compensatory basic skills when provided with the time and money to construct adequate in-service programs and when they were part of a supportive project organization. In addition, these teachers usually acted as enthusiastic liaisons, easing potential tensions with the rest of the school staff. Finally, because they already have considerable experience in working with students in this age group, problems of discipline and motivation are reduced.

(12) In-service training for compensatory education teachers in the upper grades needs to be both extensive and intensive.

In the elementary grades, students usually stay with one teacher for all or at least half of the school day. Often, compensatory teachers can be new hires whose sole assignment is to work with project students. The remainder of a school's teachers need not participate, or even be aware of the program's existence.

In the middle and upper grades, however, students move from one teacher to another, changing classes every 20 or 40 minutes and changing entire schedules several times a year. A student needing compensatory basic skills help may not spend enough time with any one faculty member to make investment in new hires worthwhile. For this reason, many projects spread their in-service and retraining through some portion of the teachers in each department, providing remedial services throughout the day.

Another reason for providing extensive in-service training is to make nonproject teachers aware of and enthusiastic about the project. Such in-service includes the difficult process of building and changing organizational structures both within the project and within the school. Often this extended in-service must be funded by nonfederal monies, which complicates the task. Nevertheless, our interviews suggest strongly that the time and trouble are worthwhile investments.

The in-service training must also be relatively intensive. That is, more techniques, materials, and problems must be discussed among secondary teachers than among their elementary counterparts. Secondary teachers come into projects with little or no previous experience and simply have more to learn. In addition, the group of teachers receiving instruction will have less in common than do groups of elementary school teachers, since each secondary teacher is bounded by his own subject and department.

None of these difficulties is insurmountable, however, and our survey and discussion suggest strongly that appropriate, collective in-service learning is one of the most crucial factors in the development of effective and stable projects for older students.

(13) Projects require and benefit from more planning time than is usually provided for elementary grade projects.

The reasons for extended planning are similar to those discussed above for extended in-service, and indeed the two processes are often thought of as one. Because secondary projects typically do not import specialists, school staff need to think through for themselves a great deal of the detail of project design. Since local curriculum and requirements vary much more among secondary schools, commercial packages can be used less frequently, necessitating some time for the development of curriculum materials. Scheduling both the faculty and the students is a complicated process, particularly during the first year, but is important to the smooth operation of the project. Finally, selecting, defining, and integrating project objectives is a lengthier process in the secondary grades because of the considerably larger range of objectives from which to choose.

Appendix A

ESEA TITLE I PARTICIPATION BY GRADE LEVEL

Table A-1

TITLE I PARTICIPATION IN GRADE SPANS K-3 AND 7-9 AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL PARTICIPATION, BY STATE, 1969-1973

State	1969		1970		1971		1972		1973	
	K-3	7-9	K-3	7-9	K-3	7-9	K-3	7-9	K-3	7-9
Total from States Shown Below	36.2	21.7	39.7	18.4	40.5	16.0	40.9	16.4	44.2	15.9
Arizona	NR	NR	NR	NR	38 %	25 %	40 %	23 %	48 %	21 %
Arkansas	NR	NR	NR	NR	30.2	23.8	NR	NR	28.9	24.8
California	41.8	20.8	50.4	8.9	52.1	9.1	51.9	8.2	54.0	6.6
Colorado	33.9	25.1	NR	NR	37.9	20.3	38.4	23.2	42.3	19.3
Connecticut	NR	NR	NR	NR	56	10	55	12	56	11
Florida	32.8	25.3	35.9	27.0	38.2	17.5	46.3	17.5	47.9	16.5
Georgia	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	36.1	23.3	37.2	23.7
Hawaii	30.5	24.6	NR	NR	42.4	17.9	33.5	21.7	NR	NR
Idaho	33.1	21.2	25.6	26.5	27.3	24.1	34.6	17.5	41.8	16.3
Kansas	30.5	22.2	37.8	19.5	38.9	21.1	38.4	18.1	45.3	18.4
Louisiana	29.0	24.2	32.5	21.5	35.2	20.6	31.1	20.8	30.1	21.2
Massachusetts	42.6	18.3	54.6	5.7	55.2	6.6	59.2	4.4	60.4	4.0
Missouri	NR	NR	32.4	22.4	34.1	20.2	35.2	19.3	37.8	17.2
Montana	36.7	19.7	26.9	23.3	34.7	22.5	29.3	24.9	31.0	25.7
Ohio	45.7	17.2	49.3	16.2	54	11	57	9	59.9	5.7
Pennsylvania	NR	NR	NR	NR	36.2	19.8	35.5	24.0	35.8	23.8
Rhode Island	49.2	11.2	51.6	11.7	55.7	11.9	51.2	15.9	47.8	16.0
South Carolina	NR	NR	31.1	23.0	31.5	22.6	33.4	21.5	32.4	21.5
South Dakota	39.4	19.[illegible]	41.9	19.6	38.7	18.2	44.0	16.9	44.9	15.5
Texas	NR	NR	NR	NR	37.6	22.0	42.6	18.8	44.2	16.4
Virginia	NR	NR	38.8	19.5	48.8	12.9	50.8	17.0	54.0	11.6
Wisconsin	39.6	18.7	49.7	12.8	53.1	7.7	57.7	6.3	62.3	5.4
Wyoming	36.8	20.1	33.2	21.9	37.2	18.3	38.4	18.2	41.9	16.5

Notes:

NR = Not Reported

Number of states = 14 in 1969; 15 in 1970; 22 in 1971, 1972, and 1973

Source: State Title I Reports

Table A-2

TITLE I ALLOTMENTS IN DOLLARS AND TITLE I STUDENT PARTICIPATION FOR GRADE SPANS 1-6 AND 7-12, BY REGION, 1973-74

	Total*	Grades 1-6	Grades 7-12
Nation†			
$	1,654,333,024	1,172,922,114	319,286,274
Participants	4,457,045	3,158,478	861,599
Ratio		3.7 to 1	
%		70.8	19.3
Northeast			
$	461,888,089	303,460,474	123,786,008
Participants	1,013,678	666,432	271,855
Ratio		2.5 to 1	
%		65.7	26.8
North Central			
$	364,882,880	262,714,638	59,475,901
Participants	838,055	603,023	136,751
Ratio		4.4 to 1	
%		71.9	16.3
South			
$	590,225,558	436,176,687	103,879,698
Participants	1,743,790	1,288,680	305,950
Ratio		4.2 to 1	
%		73.9	17.5
West			
$	237,336,547	165,423,573	40,584,550
Participants	861,522	600,337	147,043
Ratio		4.1 to 1	
%		69.6	17.0

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*Total includes pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, and Title I allotments and participants in ungraded classes.

†Nation includes 50 states for allotments and 47 states for participants. Participation data were unavailable for

Source: Allotment data from HEW, Office of Education
Participation data from FY1974 Title I Evaluation Reports published by individual states.

Table A-3

RATIO OF ESEA TITLE I PARTICIPANTS TO ELIGIBLES FOR GRADE SPANS 1-6 AND 7-12, BY REGION: 1973-74 (IN PERCENT)*

	Grades 1-6	Grades 7-12
47 States	103.7	34.3
Northeast	74.5	39.5
North Central	80.4	22.6
South	157.8	40.7
West	102.8	31.7

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*Statistics on participants 1-6 and 7-12 obtained from FY1974 Title I Evaluation reports published by the individual states. Statistics on eligibles obtained from 1970 Census and HEW, Office of Education (Washington, D.C.)

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Appendix B

METHODOLOGY

Appendix B

METHODOLOGY

The central purpose of our study was to determine:

- What resources of money, staff, materials, and time are available for attending to the needs of nonelementary students for basic skills, particularly reading?
- How are these resources organized to turn them into active projects?
- In what remedial activities do adolescent students participate?
- What major or minor problems do these projects encounter?
- How does the availability or use of resources vary among states?
- What particular programs, policies, and problems are unique to compensatory education for adolescents?

To answer these questions, we chose a combination of survey and case-study methods, both for their practical value and because many of the more formal, statistically oriented methods were impossible under our particularly strict budget.

Selection of States for Study

Initially, we hypothesized that any major differences among states in the delivery of compensatory education services to adolescents might be associated with at least three major factors. These factors were:

- Region of the country.
- Comparative proportion of elementary to secondary students participating in the state.
- The "success" of nonelementary compensatory programs as expressed in month-per-month gains.

Information on the last two factors was drawn from an analysis of the state-level annual reports of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title I. A previous analysis of information in these reports over a four-year span (1969-70 through 1973-74) allowed us to construct two kinds of rankings. The first ranking arranged states according to the proportion of all Title I participants in the grade groups K-3, 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12. The second ranking arranged states according to the average month-per-month gains reported for grades 7-9. (Previous analysis of the reported gains for grades 10-12 had indicated irregularities that made them a poor basis for choosing or understanding states, so we relied on the scores of "junior high" grades instead.)

For the school year, 1972-73, information on both the percentage of Title I participation by grade, and the average month-per-month gain by grade, was available for only fifteen states when our study began. The relative rankings of the fifteen states on these two criteria are shown in Table B-1 below, along with the region of the country for each state.

Table B-1

RANKINGS OF TITLE I PARTICIPATION AND ACHIEVEMENT IN GRADES 7-9 FOR SELECTED STATES: 1972-73[*]

State	Rankings by Percent of Title I Participation in Grades 7-9	Size of Month-for-Month Gain in Grades 7-9
South Carolina [SE][†][‡]	1	14
Arizona [SW][†]	2	11
Kansas [MW]	3	3
Nebraska [MW][†]	4	9
Missouri [MW][†]	5	5
Wyoming [RM]	6	7
Idaho [RM]	7	10
Rhode Island [NE]	8	6
South Dakota [MW]	9	12
Vermont [NE][†]	10	13
Michigan [GL][†]	11	1
Virginia [SE]	12	8
California [W][†]	13	4
Ohio [GL]	14	6
Massachusetts [NE]	15	15

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[*] States included are all those for which information was available on Title I participation by grade, and average month-per-month gain by grade. (School Year 1972-1973).

[†] States selected for study in this report.

[‡] Abbreviations in brackets refer to geographical regions: SE - Southeast; SW - Southwest; MW - Midwest; RM - Rocky Mountain; NE - Northeast; GL - Great Lakes; W - West.

Seven of these states were chosen for study such that a broad range of achievement and participation ranks was represented, along with major regions of the country.

General Procedures

States were assigned to specific members of the project team, who then reread the annual state Title I evaluation reports for the previous four years in each of the relevant states.

An initial survey instrument was drawn up and pretested on one of the states not chosen for the study and was then substantially revised.

Table B-2 shows the number of interviews conducted for this study and the number of districts participating. The inverviewee total includes state department of education officials and representatives of teacher education institutions. Follow-up calls to respondents are not included.

Table B-2

NUMBER OF INTERVIEWEES AND DISTRICTS, BY STATE

State	Total Interviewees*	Number of Districts Contacted
Arizona	22	6
California	28	11
Michigan	19	6
Missouri	27	7
Nebraska	24	6
South Carolina	18	5
Vermont	15	6
Total	153	47

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*Includes state officials.

Reference to Exhibit B-1, an interview was defined as a conversation that covered in detail at least two of the areas included in the interview form. While exact records of interview duration were not maintained, the range was 15 to 45 minutes. Calls of less than 15 minutes were normally not long enough to elicit sufficient information.

The variance among states as to the ratio of interviews to districts is partially explained by the relative size of districts. In larger districts, it was necessary to contact more district-level officials to obtain needed information. Similarly, in larger projects, it was necessary to contact more school-level officials.

The procedure for each state was as follows. Following the review of Title I reports, contacts were established with the state department of education and with any special offices that were relevant. When these interviews were completed, the SRI interviewer met with the project leader and other staff to discuss special characteristics that these interviews had suggested and that might be stressed in subsequent calls. Telephone contact was then made at the district and school levels. An open-ended questioning technique was used, and detailed notes were taken during and after each conversation. When all interviews in a particular state had been completed, the information elicited was organized in an initial write-up, which cited individual interviewees, schools, districts, and policies by name.

When all seven states had been completed and initial write-ups were available, the project team met to discuss and compare results. In several instances, questions necessitated contacting additional individuals within a state or recontacting someone for additional information on a point that had subsequently proven to be of greater interest.

An initial draft was then written to describe project designs, special issues, and conclusions, and the individual state reports were rewritten to preserve the confidentiality of the interviewees.

The second-draft document was then used as the basis of meetings between SRI project staff and sets of "experts." The latter included reading theoreticians, administrators, and project staff. They were exceedingly helpful in discussing the generalizability of our conclusions and in explaining variations in project design and organization. The sections of the report other than the individual state discussions were then redrafted.

Interview Procedure

Based on our data showing the low percentages of participation of older students in Title I, we decided that a random survey of districts within each state would probably not uncover an adequate number of projects. Thus, we used a purposive sampling technique, relying on the knowledge of state-level Title I (and state compensatory program) officials within each selected state.

The first interview attempted in each state was with the chief state school officer (CSSO). Normally, when apprised of the purposes of our study, the CSSO's office would refer us to another official--usually the state director of ESEA Title I or compensatory education. This person provided the interviewer with an overall description of the compensatory education effort in the state, and its basic policies, and other state or federal programs operating concurrently.

The next contact was with an official having direct knowledge of operating compensatory projects for older students in the state. We thus generated a list of projects to be contacted and the names of appropriate district personnel.

Before contacting the projects, we discussed the certification policies of the state with the Office of Teacher Certification. In this way, we were able to discover the various certificates available to (or required of) project staff, as well as the requirements for basic secondary certification.

The first call at the district level was to the superintendent's office. We discussed the district's compensatory program and policies and were usually referred to an office of federal programs or a person in charge of Title I and related programs.

The district Title I officer was informed of our intention to call the projects listed by the state office and was asked if any other projects should be contacted during our efforts. This process enabled us to supplement our list of projects to contact as well as to verify the information received from the state department of education.

It is possible that state level officials referred us disproportionately to projects which they believed to be doing well, and would therefore give the impression of a successful state effort. However, state officials seemed in general to have little specific knowledge of intermediate and secondary level projects, and were unlikely to have any detailed knowledge of project level evaluations. A more serious bias may have resulted from the fact that since so few nonelementary projects were funded in any state (except Arizona), those which did exist are likely to have survived in part because of particularly strong achievement records.

At the school level, the principal was contacted first. When the principal agreed to talk about the project, we were able to find out about his/her involvement with the project and degree of support for it. Relationships with the district and state levels were also discussed.

Where the project included a project leader, that person was interviewed. The project leader was able to tell us about the administrative organization of the project, the instructional workings, the kinds of staff, and the requirements for student selection and exit. We then attempted to interview a teacher at each school.

Interviews were deliberately informal. We were not attempting to make statistical comparisons of either the frequency of project attributes or the relative success of various designs. Rather, we wanted to determine the range of variation in a number of factors discussed above. It seemed essential to encourage interviewees to talk as freely as possible both to establish the range of variation and to determine how projects and states differ in their perception of it. Consequently, we used open-ended questioning, relying on *ad hoc* and *post hoc* categorization to supplement and modify our initial conceptions.

The "questionnaires" reflected this style. Each interviewer used two forms. On the first, s/he entered the responses to general questions about seven broad topics and drew an organization chart of each local project. This portion of the interview was kept to approximately ten minutes.

The interviewer then asked much more detailed questions about one or more of the general areas. Questions were based, as appropriate, on an extensive list of suggested inquiries. The interviewer was free to ask additional questions to pursue or clarify a point that arose in this part of the conversation. This portion of the interview varied from 10 to 30 minutes.

Whenever possible, we asked project level staff whether they could refer us to their counterparts in other projects in the state. In this way we were able to expand somewhat the initial list of projects and contacts which was received from the state level officials.

Evaluation Data

During the case studies, we made no attempt to collect standard evaluation data on the projects studied. We were primarily interested in finding and describing projects, in discovering what problems they faced and in deriving analytic categories which could be used in subsequent, more detailed studies. To get this information, we needed the cooperation and the confidence of the individuals to whom we spoke, which was inconsistent with the collection of evaluation data. Few teachers or project directors are going to be particularly open in discussing problems, risks, or the everyday decisions that keep a project going if he thinks that a judgement of even a pseudo-official nature is about to be made. We were rewarded by remarkable cooperation from all levels and by a wealth of information that even this lengthy document is unable to present fully.

Exhibit B-1

ADOLESCENT COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROJECTS

-Telephone Call Record-

Contact Date __________
____
____

I. PROJECT DATA

Title of Project ____________________ Funding ____________________

Location of Project ____

NAME/Title of Contact ____

Telephone Number __________________

Community Setting: Urban _________ Rural _____________

Major Ethnic and/or SES Groups _________________________

II. LOCATION OF SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

What is it that makes your project special or successful? How determined?

III. PERSONNEL FOR THE PROGRAM

Where did you get people to operate the program? Who are they?

Exhibit B-1 (Continued)

Code:____-____-____ Telephone Call Record -2-

What kind of training did the teachers receive? is it ongoing?

Who paid for the training?____

IV. STUDENTS IN THE PROGRAM

How were the students: IDENTIFIED/SELECTED?

ASSIGNED?

If standardized test used, when given? Oct-May____May-May____
Other_________________.

V. MATERIALS USED IN THE PROGRAM

What type of materials are used in the program and how were they developed or located?

At-grade____Below-grade____Developed own____Found elsewhere____

Exhibit B-1 (Concluded)

Code:____-____-____ Telephone Call Record -3-

VI. ARTICULATION AMONG LEVELS OF EDUCATION

Are there any channels of communication with projects/programs at other levels?

VII. EFFECTIVENESS/EVALUATION

How do you evaluate the effectiveness of the program/project?

(How much did it cost?)

VIII. REFERENCE

Do you know of any other successful compensatory programs for adolescents in your area or elsewhere, that might be of interest to us?

Appendix C

BASIC SKILLS IN READING

Appendix C

BASIC SKILLS IN READING

Basic skills in reading can be identified by defining the reading tasks needed in everyday life (basic literacy), by listing those skills that are the basis of all reading (basic decoding skills), by delineating the reading tasks necessary for success in school (school literacy), or by describing the reading level of printed materials at various grade levels and defining basic reading skills as the ability to read these graded materials (functional reading levels). Each of these will be considered briefly.

Basic Literacy

A number of reading tasks can be considered essential to effective functioning as a citizen. These tasks include reading daily newspapers, basic signs, job manuals, or driver's manuals. At a higher level, reading the directions for completing an insurance application, income tax forms, and the like could be included. Such tasks are necessary for economic well-being in a democratic society. A number of lists and descriptions of such tasks already exist; some lists have, in part, served as the basis for the development of basic skills tests, such as NAEP-Reading.

A basic skills test derived from the basic literacy definition would emphasize face validity, would use reading materials that are indigenous to the state in which the test is being developed, and would, therefore, probably have limited generalizability to other states. Possibly, one might develop basic sets of items for use across several states and then add items that are relevant only to particular states.

Basic Decoding Skills

Basic reading skills can be defined by delineating those behaviors that are essential to all reading. Such lists would include word recognition behaviors--such as matching letters with sounds and recognizing and understanding prefixes--and comprehension behaviors--such as identifying relevant details or sequencing events in a reading selection.

As with the basic literacy definition, many lists of such skills are available and have been used for developing numerous tests, including most of the standardized reading tests commercially available today. A basic decoding skills definition of reading has the advantage of being easily translatable into instructional skills.

School Literacy Skills

Those literacy skills that are necessary for success in school differ somewhat from those that are necessary for success as a citizen. For example, schools place great emphasis on reading-study skills such as using an index, studying chapters in a book, and using a library. Developing a definition of basic skills in reading based on skills needed for coping in schools has a major advantage. If students are taught these skills, they may be able to remain in school and learn more while they are there.

Functional Reading Levels

Most instructional reading programs in schools today are built on a series of books, in which each book is written at a more difficult reading level than the preceding book in the series. Indeed, all basic reading programs are based on such a concept. It would be quite possible to define minimal competence in reading by defining criterion levels for reading these books and then constructing a test that uses selections built on the same principles as the reading programs and using the defined criterion levels to determine functional reading competence.

For example, the criterion level could be defined as understanding 80% of the main ideas and supporting details. A test could then be constructed using a series of reading selections beginning with a first-grade level and continuing through an eighth-grade level. If a student were able to read and understand 80% of the main ideas and supporting details in a selection, that would be his functional reading level. Minimal competency could be set at any agreed-upon grade level.

Appendix D

REQUIREMENTS FOR PROFESSIONAL READING PERSONNEL

Exhibit D-1

ARIZONA REQUIREMENTS FOR READING SPECIALIST CERTIFICATION

GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

Master of Arts in Education

Elementary Education
(Option B: The Cognate Program)

Elementary Core............ 12 hrs
- EE 511 or EE 555
- SF 511 or SF 544 or SF 566
- EP 510 or CE 522
- EF 500

Elementary Education......... 6 hrs

Reading.................... 12 hrs

Secondary Education
(M.A. and Reading Specialist
Endorsement)

Secondary Core........... 12 hrs
- SE 522
- EP 514 (preferred) or EP 510
- EF 500
- SF--One Graduate Course: SF 511, 522, 533, 534, 544, 555, 556, or 591.

Reading.................. 18 hrs

Education Specialist Degree (Ed.S.)

Doctoral Degree (Ph.D. or Ed.D.)

Candidates seeking M.A., Ed.S., Ph.D. or Ed.D. degrees should contact:
- Elementary Education Department--Ed B-225 (Payne Hall)
- Secondary Education Department--Ed 409 (Farmer Bldg.)
- Reading Education (Division)--Ed B-112 (Payne Hall)

Advisors for Reading Graduate Degree Programs

Elementary (alphabetical listing):
- H. Donald Jacobs, Assoc. Professor, Reading, Ed B-121
- Carmen O'Brien, Asst. Chairman, Elementary Education, Ed B-225
- Lyndon Searfoss, Asst. Professor, Reading, Ed B-116
- Nicholas J. Silvaroli, Professor, Reading, Ed B-112A
- Jeannette Veatch, Professor, Elementary Education, Ed B-203A

Secondary (alphabetical listing):
- Ernest Dishner, Asst. Professor, Reading, Ed B-114
- John L. Edwards, Asst. Dean, Extension and Summer Sessions, ASB 110
- Dorothy Piercey, Assoc. Professor, Reading, Ed 406

Exhibit D-1 (Continued)

CERTIFICATION PROGRAM

Reading Specialist in Elementary Education*

Planned Program: Arizona Department of Education and College of Education, Arizona State University.

Requirements

A. An elementary or secondary teaching certificate.
   (The Reading Specialist endorsement entitles a licensed Elementary teacher to be employed at the High School level and entitles a licensed Secondary teacher to be employed at the Elementary level.)

B. A Master's Degree or its equivalent.
   (Candidates for the Reading Specialist endorsement at ASU should be able to qualify as master's degree candidates in either Elementary or Secondary Education and follow the recommended program below.)

C. A minimum of 15 hours in reading, among which credit should be earned in decoding in reading, diagnosis and remediation of reading difficulties, practicum and/or internship in reading. (This suggests that nine graduate hours are specifically required: a decoding diagnostic practicum and/or internship course. The other six hours, in reading, are the choice of the candidate.)

D. The reading endorsement is required for all personnel serving in the position of reading specialist, reading consultant, reading supervisor, remedial reading teacher, special reading teacher or similar titles.

Program

Reading Education.................................. 15 hours

(See item C in the above requirements.)

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*Reading specialists in secondary education will receive this endorsement upon completion of an M.A. degree in secondary reading.

Exhibit D-1 (Concluded)

Supporting Areas.................................. 12 hours

- Elementary Education (6 hours)
- Special Education (6 hours)

Elective Areas.................................... 3 hours

- Counselor Education
- Educational Psychology
- Linguistics

Procedures

Depending on your interest and education background, contact the departmental M.A. Coordinator: Elementary (Payne Hall, Ed B-255), Secondary (Farmer Bldg., Ed 409), or Certification Coordinator in Student Services (Payne Hall, Ed B-2).

Your course work will be reviewed and a planned sequence of study arranged. Upon the successful completion of the program the Certification Coordinator will recommend to the State Department of Education that a special stamp be attached to your teaching certificate.

Source: "Graduate Reading Education: Elementary and Secondary Education," College of Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona, January 1974.

Exhibit D-2

ARIZONA READING SPECIALIST GUIDELINES

An institution may submit for approval by the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing a reading specialist program which will enable a candidate to develop and demonstrate the required proficiencies.

Before entering an approved program, a candidate shall have:

1. Successfully completed a Commission-approved program on reading methods for the classroom teacher, or passed the teaching of reading examination adopted by the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing; and
2. Verified to the institution that he has completed intensive and extensive successful teaching experience in the classroom.

In order to be designated as a reading specialist, the candidate shall have successfully completed a Commission-approved reading specialist program. Every approved program for preparing reading specialists shall:

1. Provide the equivalent of at least one academic year of instruction;
2. Include the core of minimum competencies outlined under Implementation on the following page.*
3. Require intensive and varied supervised field experience involving effective:
    a. Diagnosis and treatment of children's reading difficulties;
    b. Development or refinement of reading programs;
    c. Evaluation of reading instruction; and
    d. Interpersonal communication and group process.

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*Provided that the core competencies constitute the major portion of its program, an institution may emphasize certain advanced skills, for example, treating learning disabilities or developing school-wide reading programs.

Exhibit D-2 (Continued)

4. Assess the abilities of experienced reading specialist candidates in the required areas and meet needs revealed by such an assessment.

Policies

The institution shall provide a core program for preparing reading specialists. Each program shall have clearly stated goals and objectives and state the means by which to achieve them.

Implementation

The program objectives shall define in verifiable terms the understandings and competencies to be developed and state the experiences provided in which to demonstrate them.

Competencies shall be developed in, but not limited to, the following areas:

Theoretical Background

- Psychology of reading, thinking, and learning
- Structure, sources, and dialects of the English language
- Cultural differences and reading

Diagnosis and Referral

Instruments Measuring Reading

- Selection
- Construction
- Interpretation of Results

Prescription

Selection, Use, and Evaluation of Materials and Methods for Teaching:

- Readiness
- Word Recognition
- Comprehension and Critical Reading
- Purpose, Approach, and Rate Flexibility
- Study and Locational Skills
- Interest and Motivation to Read

Exhibit D-2 (Concluded)

- Appreciation of Content and Style
- Oral Fluency and Expression

Locating and Using Professional Literature on Reading

Motivating Children, Colleagues, and Community

Techniques of Professional Improvement

Source: Gustafson, G.A., "Reading Specialist Guidelines," general distribution memorandum provided by California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing (March 20, 1973).

Exhibit D-3

State of California
Commission for Teaching Preparation and Licensing
Licensing Law of 1970 (Ryan)

R-Read

THE SPECIALIST INSTRUCTION CREDENTIAL AUTHORIZING SERVICE AS A READING SPECIALIST
(Direct Application Basis)

Before September 15, 1977, but not thereafter, application may be made directly to the Commission for the credential authorizing service as a reading specialist. Course work must have been completed on or after July 1, 1964, and acceptable experience shall have commenced on or after September 1, 1970. Applicants shall hold a valid basic teaching credential requiring a degree and teacher preparation. This may be a partial, preliminary, postponed, clear, or life document, issued under present or prior regulations. In addition, applicants shall have successfully completed in accredited institutions a program including the following:

POSTGRADUATE WORK: A minimum of 24 semester hours or equivalent beyond the bachelor's degree.

SPECIALIZED PREPARATION: 24 semester hours of upper division or graduate level course work in the specialized area or in related areas, which shall include but not be limited to coverage of each of the eight categories listed below, 1 - 8. Not over 6 semester hours of credit may be allowed for experience as a reading specialist in the public schools, at the rate of 3 semester hours of credit for each full year of experience. Such credit shall be applied to categories 5 through 8 only. Either by course work or by experience, the candidate shall verify preparation to meet the reading needs of students in grades 12 and below and in classes for adults.

SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS:

(1) Theoretical Background

   (A) Psychology of reading, thinking, and learning (Preparation should include the nature and theory of reading and the causes of reading disabilities).

   (B) Structure, sources, and dialects of the English language (Preparation should include a study of linguistics with emphasis on dialects and the linguistically different).

   (C) Cultural differences and reading (Preparation should include bicultural aspects of reading).

(2) Diagnosis and Referral (Preparation should include the diagnosis and correction of reading disabilities at the elementary and secondary levels).

(3) Instruments Measuring Reading (Preparation in these areas should include measurement and evaluation in reading, and interpretation of the effects of the use of varied approaches and techniques).

   (A) Selection
   (B) Construction
   (c) Interpretation of Results

(4) Prescription (Preparation in this area should include the varying needs of varying individuals).

   (A) Readiness
   (B) Word Recognition
   (C) Comprehension and Critical Reading
   (D) Purpose, Approach, and Rate Flexibility
   (E) Study and Locational Skills
   (F) Interest and Motivation to Read
   (G) Appreciation of Content and Style
   (H) Oral Fluency and Expression

   (In addition to a study of techniques involving the listed factors, preparation in this area should include the establishment of curriculum plans and leadership; the evaluation of reading programs; and practical and clinical laboratory in reading disabilities).

(6) Locating and Using Professional Literature on Reading (Preparation in this area should include research in reading).

(7) Motivating Children, Colleagues, and Community (Preparation should include personnel relations and group processes).

(8) Techniques of Professional Improvement (Preparation should include the function and duties of the reading specialist).

(A summary adapted from credential regulations and Commission policies)

Exhibit D-4

SAN JOSE STATE UNIVERSITY READING SPECIALIST CREDENTIAL PROGRAM

Specialized Requirements

Before entering an approved program, a candidate shall have:

(A) Successfully completed a Commission-approved program on reading methods for the classroom teacher, or passed the teaching of reading examination adopted by the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing "by (1) showing a transcript indicating that the basic reading course was successfully completed at the San Jose State University or (2) submitting evidence that the Commission-approved examination has been passed or (3) passing the Commission-approved examination to be administered at San Jose State University."

(B) Verified to San Jose State University that he has completed intensive and extensive successful teaching experience in the classroom by:

- (1) Submitting a letter describing the type of teaching experience and the specifics of that program including materials and methods used, the approximate time spent teaching reading and at what instructional levels (primary, intermediate, junior high, secondary). The report should include teaching knowledge of means for:
  - (a) Teaching word attack skills
  - (b) Teaching comprehension skills
  - (c) Classroom management schemes for teaching reading
  - (d) Using children's literature in reading teaching
  - (e) Teaching reading in the content areas of the curriculum.
- (2) The submission of statements by at least two school officials (principals, superintendents, supervisor,

reading consultant) familiar with the candidate's work, verifying that the professional performance was successful and predicting level of success as a reading specialist.

The experience requirement can be waived for provisional acceptance into the program, providing he has been judged to be an outstanding candidate by at least two members of the university teaching staff. However, no candidate will be granted the credential until he has had three years of verified successful experience.

In addition, the candidate will not be admitted to full status as a candidate for the reading specialist credential until his abilities are assessed by means of all the following:

(a) Evaluation of the letters of verification of the candidate's experience.

(b) Interviews with the candidate by two or more members of the School of Education in order to determine the extent of background and knowledge of materials and methods of teaching reading.

(c) Written examinations sampling the content of the courses and other university classroom activity (learning modules).

(d) Demonstrations via videotape of level of skill attained in particular reading areas, such as diagnosis.

(e) Self-assessment by the candidate.

As a result of the preassessment, the candidate will be required to take as many of the following courses as is deemed necessary by the reading professors in the credential program at San Jose State University.

Exhibit D-4 (Concluded)

Program Requirements

The reading specialist credential program at San Jose State University will provide the equivalent of at least one academic year (30 units) of instruction.

Courses		Units
ED. 234	Seminar in Curriculum (emphasis in reading)	3
ED. 221	Research Seminar in Education (project for this course will be concerned with reading teaching)	3
ED. 116	Preparation of Inexpensive Teaching Materials (emphasis in reading teaching)	2
ED. 223	Assessment of Language Behavior: General Semantics for Teachers	3
ED. 211	Improvement of Reading Instruction	3
ED. 212	Seminar in Reading	3
ED. 216	Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques in Reading	3
ED. 217	Laboratory in Remedial Reading	3
Proposed Courses		
ED. 207	Using Children's Literature in the Reading Program	3
ED. 2 a	Teaching Reading to the Economically, Linguistically and Culturally Different Child	3
ED. 2 b	Field Experiences for Reading Specialist Candidates (practicum)	4+

Source: "Reading Specialist Credential Program," brochure of the College of Education, San Jose State University (undated).

Exhibit D-5

STATE AID FOR READING SUPPORT SERVICES IN MICHIGAN

(Effective July 8, 1974)

(By authority conferred on the state board of education by section 43 of Act No. 258 of the Public Acts of 1972, as amended, being section 388.1143 of the Michigan Compiled Laws.)

R 388.251-R 388.256. Rescinded by R 388.426.

R 388.421. Definition of reading support services teacher.

Rule 1. "Reading support services teacher" means a person who functions in 1 or more of the following ways:

(a) As a consultant on reading support services to teachers.

(b) As a facilitator of inservice training in the area of reading support services.

(c) As a coordinator and trainer of paraprofessional and voluntary personnel in the area of reading support services.

(d) As a teacher providing supplementary and prescriptive instructional services or resources in reading to individual pupils or small groups of pupils, and reporting to parents.

R 388.422. Qualifications of reading support services teacher.

Rule 2. A reading support services teacher shall meet all of the following requirements:

(a) Have completed 3 years of successful teaching in elementary school, kindergarten through grade 6, or of teaching language arts curriculum in secondary school, grades 7 through 12.

(b) Have a valid Michigan teaching certificate.

(c) Have earned a baccalaureate degree from an accredited college or university.

(d) Have acquired a minimum of 12 semester credit hours in the area of reading instruction, 6 semester hours of which shall be in courses whose content includes diagnosis of reading disability and methods of remediation.

Exhibit D-5 (Continued)

R 388.423. Temporarily approved teacher.

Rule 3. If a fully qualified reading support services teacher is not available, a partially qualified teacher may be employed for not more than 1 year, upon approval by the state board of education. Such a teacher shall meet all of the following requirements:

(a) Have earned a baccalaureate degree from an accredited college or university.

(b) Have a valid Michigan teaching certificate.

(c) Have 6 semester hours of college or university courses in the area of reading instruction.

(d) Have completed at least 2 years of successful teaching.

Michigan does not have reading specialist certification for all reading specialists in the state. However, if an LEA is participating in Reading Support Services and is going to be reimbursed with state aid, it must meet these requirements.

388.424. Student loads and consultative services.

Rule 4. (1) A reading support services teacher who functions as a consultant on reading support services to teachers, as a facilitator of inservice training in the area of reading support services or as a coordinator and trainer of para-professional and voluntary personnel in the area of reading support services shall not be restricted as to student load.

(2) The student load of a reading support services teacher providing full-time direct supplementary remedial reading instruction shall be not more than 50 pupils. If a teacher is employed less than fulltime in this instruction, the student load shall be reduced proportionately.

(3) The student load of a reading support services teacher providing instruction with emphasis on developmental reading shall be commensurate with the performance objectives of the program.

(4) Not less than 1 day a week, or its equivalent in time, shall be used by a reading support services teacher for consultation with school staff members and parents and for inservice training.

Exhibit D-5 (Concluded)

(5) A school district which has entered into a guaranteed reading performance contract with an outside agency may be approved for reimbursement for participating reading support services teachers meeting the standards prescribed in rules 2 or 3 even though the functions of the teachers deviate from those prescribed in rule 1 and subdivisions (1), (2) and (3) or rule 4 if the performance contract is approved by the department of education based upon its finding that the reading support services program is innovative, holds promise of success and is in the best interests of the children of the school district.

R 388.425. Budgets and reports.

* Rule 5. (1) An annual report shall be provided to the department of education. The report shall include, when appropriate, a summary by grade of pupil scores of pretests and posttests. Additionally, the report shall state the results of an (external) evaluation (and audit) based upon the performance objectives submitted in the application.

((2) The evaluation audit shall be conducted by an approved group or individual other than the applicant agency or employee of that agency. The cost of this audit and evaluation shall be borne by the applicant agency. The auditor shall certify that:

(a) The delivery system was based upon objectives stated in the application.

(b) Final evaluation was based upon the stated objectives.

(c) Evaluation results submitted are accurate.)

R 388.426. Rescission.

Rule 6. Rules 1 to 6 of the rules entitled "State Aid for Remedial Reading Programs," being R 388.251 to R 388.256 of the Michigan Administrative Code and appearing on page 4223 of the 1967 Annual Supplement to the Code, page 5612 ot the 1970-71 Annual Supplement to the Code and page 39 of Supplement No. 71 to the Code, are rescinded.

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*Due to a change of language in Section 43 this year, the bracketed portions of Rule 5 no longer apply to the Reading Support Services program.

Source: Michigan Department of Education and Michigan State Board of Education, undated.

Exhibit D-6

MASTER OF EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOL READING

WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY

The course work for this degree is divided into three areas: the major, the general professional or core background, and the cognate.

THE MAJOR: READING, SECONDARY

The major consists of 24 quarter hours as follows:

	CR.
TED 6532 - Literature for Adolescents	4
TED 6541 - Foundations of Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools (offered Fall and Spring quarters)	4
TED 6542 - Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools (offered Winter and Summer quarters)	4
TED 6543 - Teaching Reading in the Content Areas	4
TED 7017 - Master's Seminar in Secondary English & Reading (offered only in Winter Quarter)	4
OR	
TED 7010 - Field Study in English Education	
TED 7019 - Master's Essay or Project	4
	24 Hours Required

Course Descriptions

TED 6532 - Literature for Adolescents, cr. 4. Prerequisite: teaching experience or directed teaching. Survey of literature written for adolescents. Standard for evaluating adolescent literature. Selection of literature for individual pupils in relation to interest and reading ability. Use of classroom collections. Techniques for helping pupils read poetry, drama and fiction.

TED 6541 - Foundations of Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools, cr. 4. Prerequisite: teaching experience. Psychological and physiological

Exhibit D-6 (Continued)

aspects of reading. Use of standardized and informal diagnostic and evaluation instruments. Interrelations among specific reading skills. Introduction to methods and materials of instruction in reading.

TED 6542 - *Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools*, cr. 4. Prerequisite: TED 6541. Classroom methods in teaching remedial reading, selection and evaluation of instructional materials, use and evaluation of mechanical aids, review of research, relation of teacher to clinical.

TED 6543 - *Teaching Reading in the Secondary Content Areas*, cr. 4. Prerequisite: teaching experience. Reading process in relation to concept formation. Integration of reading skills into content learnings. Administering and interpreting informal reading tests. Interpretation of standardized reading tests.

TED 7017 - *Master's Seminar in Secondary English and Reading*, cr. 4. Prerequisite: 12 hours in major. Review of issues in secondary English and reading. Survey of research techniques and critical evaluation of selected studies. Approval of designs for master's essay or curriculum design.

TED 7010 - *Field Study*, cr. 4. Students who are not able to take the Master's Seminar may be permitted to complete the same work by means of this directed study.

TED 7019 - *Master's Essay or Project*, cr. 4. Prerequisite: completion of 36 graduate hours and consent of adviser. The master's essay, which all students on Plan B (see *Bulletin* of the College of Education) must write, is a rigorous examination of some clearly defined and significant problem or issue in the teaching of reading. Close criticism and supervision are provided by the adviser in private consultation.

Some students who will follow Plan C (see *Bulletin*) will undertake curriculum projects or will develop instructional materials rather than write a formal essay.

Students who do not complete the essay or project in the quarter in which they enroll may be given a withdrawal grade (X) and be required by their adviser to enroll in a subsequent quarter.

Exhibit D-6 (Continued)

GENERAL PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND	CR.
TBF 5748 - Psychology of Adolescence or Similar Course Approved by Adviser	3
TBF 7701 - Role of Teacher in Guidance or Similar Course Approved by Adviser	3
TBF 7661 - Evaluation & Measurement OR	
TBF 7663 - Fundamentals of Statistics	3
	9 Hours Required

THE COGNATE

1. TED 7344 - Reading Diagnosis & Educational Planning	4

2. ELECTIVES

Eight hours from either of the groupings listed below may be elected.

Group A:

ELD 7315 - Teaching & Supervision of Reading in the Elementary School	4
TED 7332 - Reading in Early Childhood	4
TED 7333 - Reading in Later Childhood	4

Group B:

TBF 5832 - Psychology of Learning Disability	4
TBF 7833 - Diagnostic Study of Learning Disability	4
	12 Hours Required

READING, SECONDARY

Some General Consideration

The Plan of Work:

Each student is to file a plan of work (3 copies) with adviser before he has completed eighteen quarter hours of work. After this plan of work has been signed by the adviser and approved in the Graduate

Exhibit D-6 (Concluded)

Education Office, each student shall sign his own program and pursue his own plan. Changes in the plan are permissible only within categories and subject to informal approval of the adviser. The total number of hours shown on the plan must be completed and may not be changed.

Time Limitations

The requirements of the master's degree must be completed within six years. Students presenting course work of greater vintage must validate each credit with the approval of the adviser in an oral examination.

Oral Examination

Average credits, the disparity of grades with preponderance on "C's" and certain other necessitate the completion of an oral examination. For most students who meet standard degree requirements the oral examination for this degree is waived. Each student should check with his adviser in the terminal master's seminar to determine whether an oral is required in his case.

The Master's Essay File

Each thesis or essay completed in this department is kept on file outside Room 289 on the College of Education. These essays are available for study by in-service teachers.

Professional Advice

Professional advice for this master's degree may be obtained from Dr. Peter L. Sanders and Dr. Jacqueline Tilles.

Revised 5/76

Exhibit D-7

MISSOURI CERTIFICATION STANDARDS FOR TEACHERS OF REMEDIAL READING K-12

I. Baccalaureate degree from a college or university accredited for teacher education

II. A valid Missouri teacher's certificate (Elementary preferred)

III. Coursework for permanent certification in Remedial Reading is:

  a. Teaching of Reading ______
  b. Methods of Remedial Reading or Analysis and Correction of Reading Disabilities ______
  c. Individual Intelligence Testing or Psycho-Education Measurement* ______
  d. Practicum in Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties (3 hrs. min.) ______
  e. Practicum in Remediation of Reading Difficulties (3 hrs. min.) ______

IV. Coursework for Two-Year Certification:

Applicant must have a Baccalaureate degree and must have completed three (3) of the courses listed above for temporary certification.

NOTE: A permanent Missouri Teacher's Certificate is needed before permanent certification can be granted in Remedial Reading.

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*Psycho-Education Measurement - Coursework must include the administration and interpretation of one or more of the following individual ability tests: the Stanford Binet, the WISC, the Slosson, or the PPVT, and may include other tests important to a remedial reading program.

Source: Form TC-81, 1973, Teacher Education and Certification, Missouri State Department of Education.

Exhibit D-7 (Concluded)

V. The University of Missouri offers the following courses to fulfill the requirements a through e listed on the preceding page.

Requirement	Course Number	Course Title	Credits
a.	E325	Teaching Reading in the Elementary School	3
	D365	Teaching Reading in the Secondary School	3
b.	E369	Analysis and Correction of Reading Disabilities	3
c.	A303	Individual Intelligence Testing*	3
d.	E415	Practicum in Child Study I	3
e.	E416	Practicum in Child Study II	3

The following additional courses are offered by the University of Missouri, but not required for the degree.

E370	Diagnostic and Corrective Reading in the Classroom
E411	Seminar in Reading and Language Arts
E412	Seminar in Instructional Materials in Reading
E420	Issues and Trends in Reading Instruction

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*This course apparently does not include criterion referenced tests or instruments used to assess and diagnose specific reading skills.

Source: Mr. Fred Breme, Education Department, University of Missouri.

Exhibit D-8

COURSE REQUIREMENTS

M.S. IN READING, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

Effective January, 1975

REQUIRED:

Ed. 801 V ---- Introduction to Research 3 hours
Sped.911 ---- Problems in Teaching Reading - Elementary 3 hours
Sped.912 ---- Problems in Teaching Reading - Secondary 3 hours
Sped.813 M ---- Diagnostic and Remedial Instruction in Reading 3 hours
Sped.814 V ---- Measurement and Evaluation in Reading 3 hours
Sped.815 V ---- Clinical Practice in Reading 3 hours
Sped.870 V ---- Seminar in Special Education 3 hours
Sped.917 ---- Seminar in Organization and Administration of Reading Programs 3 hours
and/or SPED 918 - Seminar in Research in Reading 3 hours

Elective Cognate Courses (Select three or four courses below to complete the 36-hour program):

Ed. 827 M ---- Current Trends in Early Childhood Education 3 hours
Ed. 818 M ---- Mental Health in the Classroom 3 hours
Ed. 820 M ---- Literature for Children and Youth 3 hours
Sped.840 M ---- Learning Disabilities 3 hours
Ed. 898 M ---- Growth and Learning Problems of Disadvantaged 3 hours
Ed. 840 V ---- Innovations and Trends in Elementary Education 3 hours
Ed. 843 V ---- Introduction to Curriculum Planning - Elementary 3 hours
Ed. 890 M ---- Principles of Guidance 3 hours
Sped.842 M ---- Psychology of Speech 3 hours
Sped.806 V ---- Exceptional Child 3 hours
Sped.406 ---- Introduction to the Mentally Subnormal Child 3 hours
Psych.831M ---- Psychology and Educational Testing 3 hours
Psych.851 ---- Developmental Psychology 3 hours
Psych.851V ---- Advanced Educational Psychology 3 hours
Sped.470 ---- Introduction to Teaching the Gifted 3 hours

Exhibit D-8 (Concluded)

Ed. 809 V ---- The Urban School 3 hours

Ed. 833 V ---- Analysis of Teacher Behavior 3 hours

Sped.880 M ---- Emotional Development of Children and Youth 3 hours

Sped.895 V ---- Diagnosis of Learning Disabilities 3 hours

Other courses by consent of Dr. Akers or Dr. Cushenbery.

(Six hours may be transferred from another accredited institution on approval of advisor and the Graduate Office.)

Source: School of Education, University of Nebraska at Omaha.

Exhibit D-9

GRADUATE PROGRAM FOR READING SPECIALISTS
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

Since 1966 the U.N.O. has conducted a graduate program for the training of reading specialists. The course requirements meet the standards of the International Reading Association. A complete description of the program is included in the current graduate bulletin of the university. Each candidate is required to enroll for a basic core of graduate reading courses with other selected cognate courses for the 36-hour M.S. curriculum. Non-majors are welcome to enroll in the reading courses numbered 911 and 912. Permission of the instructor must be obtained for enrolling in 813, 814, and 815.

The demand for reading specialists with the M.S. degree far exceeds the supply in all areas of the country. The training received at this institution has qualified many graduates to assume positions as reading coordinators, reading supervisors, reading clinicians, and reading resource teachers. The possibilities are unlimited for persons with the proper training. Your inquiries concerning the U.N.O. program are welcomed.

Students who expect to take graduate courses must be admitted to the Graduate College by January 1, May 8, and August 15, for the spring, summer, and fall sessions respectively. The Admissions Office will be happy to supply the proper forms. Dr. Cushenbery or Dr. Akers will forward additional information to interested students.

GRADUATE READING FACULTY

Dr. Jim Akers received his Doctor of Education Degree at Oklahoma State University with a major in reading education. He has extensive training as a reading coordinator and reading clinician and was a graduate assistant in the O.S.U. Reading Clinic.

Dr. Donald Cushenbery came to U.N.O. in 1964 after receiving his Doctor of Education Degree at the University of Missouri. He was a graduate assistant for Dr. A. Sterl Artley. He has published several

Exhibit D-9 (Continued)

professional articles and texts in elementary and secondary reading which have been sold in all states. Since 1965 he has been a part-time reading consultant for the Omaha Public Schools.

GRADUATE READING COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

SPED 812

This course is designed for future elementary classroom teachers who wish to develop a better understanding of reading problems, their assessment, and their remediation.

SPED V911: Problems in Teaching Reading - Elementary (3 hrs)

A course concerned with all major phases of reading instruction at the elementary level. It is offered during all sessions and is open to any person with graduate standing. (Cushenbery)

SPED V912: Problems in Teaching Reading - Secondary (3 hrs)

A course designed to acquaint the student with developmental, corrective, and remedial reading programs at the junior and senior high levels. It is offered during the first and second semesters and is open to any student who has graduate standing. (Cushenbery)

SPED 813: Diagnostic and Remedial Instruction in Reading (3 hrs)

Among the topics involved in the course are the nature and purpose of diagnostic reading instruments and techniques and materials in remediation. The course is offered to all graduate students by permission during the first and second semesters and the first summer session. (Akers)

SPED 814: Measurement and Evaluation in Reading (3 hrs)

Information obtained from SPED 813 (or similar course) is applied in a practical sense by evaluating reading problems of children who visit the clinic. It is open to all graduate students by permission during the first and second semesters and the first summer session. (Akers)

Exhibit D-9 (Concluded)

SPED 815: Clinical Practice in Reading (3 hrs)

A practicum course which involves each student in working with pupils with reading problems on a regular basis is the main objective of the course. Lesson plans and case studies are required. All students with graduate standing may enroll at all sessions with permission. (Akers)

SPED V917: Seminar in the Organization and Administration of Reading Programs (3 hrs)

Topics relating to the establishment and maintenance of effective reading programs are explored in accordance with the interests of the students enrolled in the course. Pre-service and in-service administrators are especially welcome. Open to any person with graduate standing. Offered first semester and first summer session. (Cushenbery)

SPED V918: Seminar in Research in Reading

A course for advanced graduate and post-graduate students relating to in-depth studies of significant, recent research in reading with appropriate application for instructional procedures which may be undertaken. Each student will conduct self-initiated research and report the results of the activity to other class members for comment and evaluation.

Exhibit D-10

REQUIREMENTS FOR VARIOUS READING SPECIALIST CERTIFICATIONS IN SOUTH CAROLINA

REQUIREMENTS FOR READING TEACHER	Units Required
A. Professional Class III Certificate	
B. Two years of successful teaching experience	
C. Credits in:	
1. Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction	3
2. Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties	3
3. Practicum in Reading	3
4. Methods and Materials of Reading Instruction	3

REQUIREMENTS FOR READING CONSULTANT	
A. Professional Class III Certificate	
B. Two years of successful teaching experience	
C. Credits in:	
1. Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction	3
2. Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties	3
3. Practicum in Reading	3
4. Methods and Materials of Reading Instruction	3
D. Graduate credits in:	
1. Organization and Supervision of Reading Programs	3
2. Testing and Measurements	3
3. Educational Psychology	3
4. Reading in the Secondary School	3

REQUIREMENTS FOR READING COORDINATOR OR DIRECTOR	
A. Professional Class III Certificate	
B. Five years of successful teaching experience	
C. Credits in:	
1. Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction	3
2. Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties	3

Exhibit D-10 (Continued)

	Units Required
3. Practicum in Reading	3
4. Methods and Materials of Reading Instruction	3
D. Graduate Credits in:	
1. Organization and Supervision of Reading Programs	3
2. Testing and Measurements	3
3. Educational Psychology	3
4. Reading in the Secondary School	3
5. Administration and Supervision	3
6. Curriculum Development	3
7. Research and Literature in Reading	3
8. Fundamentals of Guidance	3

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS FOR READING CLINICI[illegible]

	Units Required
A. Professional Class III Certificate	
B. Two years of successful teaching experien[illegible]	
C. Credits in:	
1. Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction	3
2. Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Difficulties	3
3. Practicum in Reading	3
4. Methods and Materials of Reading Instruction	3
D. Graduate credits in:	
1. Organization and Supervision of Reading Programs	3
2. Testing and Measurements	3
3. Educational Psychology	3
4. Reading in the Secondary School	3
5. Administration and Supervision	3
6. Curriculum Development	3
7. Research and Literature in Reading	3
8. Fundamentals of Guidance	3
9. Advanced Clinical Testing, including Individual Intelligence Testing	3
10. Exceptional Child	3

Exhibit D-10 (Concluded)

	Units Required
11. Personality and Abnormal Psychology	3
12. Psychology of Reading	3
13. Advanced Course in Remedial Reading	3
14. Advanced Practicum	3

Source: Work Sheet available from the South Carolina Office of Teacher Certification.

Exhibit D-11

GUIDELINES FOR ADEQUATE PREPARATION OF READING PERSONNEL IN VERMONT

Reading Personnel

a. The Reading Teacher

All teachers in Elementary Education would have a background in the methods of teaching reading, and a survey course in reading and/or Children's Literature. All teachers of English at the Secondary Level would have a background in a survey course in reading in the content areas as well as a course in reading at the Secondary Level.

The "Reading "Teacher" is a specialist who would have accumulated in an undergraduate or graduate program a minimum of 12 hours in the areas of Reading and Language Arts or in specialized courses within the reading area. The following course titles are names for identification:

(1) A basic survey of the teaching of reading.
(2) Methods of diagnosis and remediation in reading.
(3) Children's Literature.
(4) A basic course in oral and written communication, listening and speech. This block included in a Language Arts course.
(5) Other special courses related to reading, e.g., Linguistics, Phonetics, Semantics.
(6) A general course in teaching methods, e.g., the Principles of Teaching at the identified areas of Primary, Intermediate and Secondary.

b. Remedial Reading Teacher

The Remedial Reading Teacher is one who has had a background of experience in the diagnosis of reading difficulties and who has met all of the qualifications listed under a.

Additional preparation for this position would include:

(1) A minimum of one semester hour carrying 3 to 6 credits in a recognized clinical reading program. This course might be

identified as a Practicum in Remedial and Diagnostic reading techniques.

(2) A one semester 3 credit course in Psychological Testing. This course would not necessitate the teacher acquiring a Testing Certificate, but rather a knowledge and an understanding of the variety of individual tests used to evaluate pupils' achievement.

(3) Successful classroom teaching experience of at least 2 years, preferably 3 years, at the level where the Remedial Reading Teacher is to work; namely, Primary, Intermediate, Secondary.

c. The Reading Supervisor

The Reading Supervisor is one who has met all of the requirements of a and b.

It is recommended that the Reading Supervisor be at the Master's level in preparation, and that as part of the Master's, a minimum of 18 hours in Reading and Related Language Arts areas would constitute that part of the Graduate Program. In addition to these recommendations, the following courses and experiences are suggested:

(1) A course in supervision at the level of the position--Elementary, Secondary.

(2) A course in General Methods of Principles of Teaching at each level of supervision. This course would be a Graduate level course.

(3) A minimum of 3 years, but preferably 5 years, of successful teaching and/or Remedial Reading experience at the level of supervision.

d. Reading Consultant

The Reading Consultant is one who has both administrative as well as supervisory responsibilities in the field of reading. This person would have met the requirements of a, b, and c. In addition to these requirements, the following recommendations are made:

(1) The Consultant should be proficient in research projects and in the development of reading research. Therefore, a 4 to 5 hour

Exhibit D-11 (Concluded)

credit course in research and evaluation conducted at graduate level through seminars would be required.

(2) The ability to conduct in-service workshop programs for teachers and administrators in order to demonstrate and explain reading techniques and procedures.

(3) A course in Administration at the level of the position--Elementary, Secondary.

e. The Reading Coordinator

The Reading Coordinator is one who has had experience as a classroom teacher, as a specialist in reading at all levels, and has met the requirements of the above a, b, c, and d. In addition, the Reading Coordinator should have the following professional background:

(1) The Reading Coordinator should have acquired additional professional and educational credits to present either a Doctor's Degree in Education or a CAGS.

(2) In this advanced degree the concentration of coursework and preparation should be in reading and its related fields.

Source: "Regulations Governing the Certification of Educational Personnel," State of Vermont Department of Education, Montpelier, Vt., July 1, 1971 (amended 1973).

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4. California State Department of Education, "Regulations for Consolidated Categorical Aid Programs in California Schools," p. 2 (1975), [reprinting Calif. Administrative Code, Title 5, Education, Sections 3900-3944, adopted May 18, 1974].

5. "Report of the Commission on the Reform of Intermediate and Secondary Education," California Department of Education, Sacramento, California, 1975.

6. "Reading and Mathematics Instruction for Low Achieving Students: A Report on Demonstration Programs in Intensive Instruction in Reading and Mathematics, 1970-71," p. 1, California State Department of Education (1972).

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